The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 1, 1897.

The Week.

MR. DINGLEY has graciously consented to let up on the colleges and the libraries —when he found that they did not propose to let up on him. On Monday week he was loftily superior to the ignorant critics of his tax on civilization; on Wednesday he was hastily telegraphing that books and scientific apparatus for colleges might be imported free after all. He wishes this to appear an amazing act of condescension, but, in the first place, it was clearly extorted from him, and, in the second, it was simply leaving the colleges undisturbed in a privilege which they have enjoyed from the foundation of the government. The only tariff bill, we believe, which ever denied institutions of learning this right of free importation was the law of 1846; and in that measure the omission seems to have been an oversight which was quickly repaired. An appropriation act of August 12, 1848, provided $7,000 for "refunding certain duties paid by colleges, academies," etc., under the act of July 30, 1846, and also enacted that thereafter all philosophical apparatus, books, maps, charts, etc., imported for the use of colleges, "shall be free of duty, anything in the act above named to the contrary notwithstanding." So that Mr. Dingley's wonderful concession is only a grudging assent to the continuance of an immemorial right which even the McKinley tariff did not venture to disturb.

The attack made by some of the Massachusetts Congressmen on the Dingley tariff bill on Monday is an unmistakable sign of the disgust with which that measure has been received in New England. It also forebodes disaster to the Republican party in that quarter, for no Republican Congressman would utter a word of complaint on such a subject unless his constituents were "fighting mad." Of course the principal bone of contention is the new wool schedule which the handful of Ohio wool-growers, under the lead of William Lawrence, have foisted upon the Dingley bill. This fatal measure threatens to cause more mischief in the woollen industry than free trade could produce. This is especially true of the carpet industry. Here the duties, although nominally the same as in the McKinley tariff, are actually higher by virtue of new regulations, cunningly devised by Lawrence and his cohort, and carried over the head of Dingley himself by the committee of which he is chairman. Behind this destructive schedule lie the votes of three or four Silver Republican, or rather ex-Republican, Senators from Colorado and Montana, without which the bill cannot be passed. In order to get these votes, the woollen industry of New England is to be put to the torture unless their Senators and Representatives in Congress are willing to fight. The protest made by Mr. McCall and Mr. Lovering amounts to nothing unless they are willing to back it with their votes. It serves to show what sort of feelings are smouldering among their constituents, but it will not prevent the Ohio shepherds from riding over them. Failing any determined resistance in the House, it is still possible to make it in the Senate.

The Dingley tariff bill contains a provision authorizing the President of the United States to impose or suspend certain duties on certain articles from certain countries, according as he shall believe that those countries are dealing fairly or unfairly by us in their tariff laws. This is called the reciprocity clause, and is much favored by the Republican party. Now the Democrats in Congress propose that the President's discretion shall be extended to all articles of commerce controlled by Trusts or combinations of producers. This is a demagogical amendment, no doubt. It is intended to have political, not fiscal, consequences. Its purpose, in the jargon of the day, is to "put the Republicans in a hole," and it may even be successful in that aim. Protective tariff legislation has at last boxed the compass. It began with the avowed object of giving a start to new industries. After this was accomplished, it was continued in order that the price to the consumer might be reduced by domestic competition. As soon as this condition seemed likely to be reached, the protected industries combined to prevent reduction of price by competition. All sorts of Trusts were formed for this purpose—Sugar Trust, Lead Trust, Rubber Trust, and so on down to the Castor-Oil Trust. Now it happens that Trusts have become an object of much public animadversion and detestation. This is rather a critical moment with them, and it is doubtful whether the Republican party can take on its back any burdens respecting them. It is doubtful whether it can afford to favor them in any way.

The ordinary voter will see no reason why the discretion should not be lodged with the President to remit duties on articles controlled by Trusts, when he is equally authorized to impose or remit duties under the reciprocity clause. It may be offered as an objection that the President cannot know whether an article is so controlled by a Trust or not. The answer is that absolute knowledge is not required, but merely an opinion. The President can always have an opinion. That is all that is required of him under the reciprocity clause. President Harrison held various opinions under the reciprocity clause of the McKinley tariff respecting the duties on sugar, coffee, and hides from Brazil, Venezuela, Cuba, and other countries. Why may not President McKinley have his opinion respecting the control of such an article as sugar in the domestic market by a Trust? If his opinion should chance to be erroneous, that would be no killing matter. It is generally considered that President Harrison's opinion as to Venezuelan coffee was erroneous when he imposed a duty on it by virtue of his lawful discretion. Venezuela said that she imposed duties on our breadstuffs because she could not spare the revenue which she obtained from that source. Mr. Harrison thought that that was not a good reason. So he imposed a duty of three cents per pound on the "mild coffee" of Venezuela, which the consumers in this country were obliged to pay. Yet nobody questioned either President Harrison's authority or his motives. So it would be under a clause giving President McKinley discretion to remit duties on articles controlled by Trusts. Of course there would be differences of opinion as to his exercise of judgment in this class of cases. If, for example, he should be of opinion that refined sugar was not controlled by a Trust, and should accordingly leave the duty on that article in full force, other people might think differently and elections might be decided on that issue. No moral delinquency could be attached to such exercise of judgment, although the political consequences might be grave.

Among the many outrageous features of the Dingley tariff bill are some that are ludicrous as well; for example, that relating to tooth-brushes. This clause provides that on brushes for the hair, nails, or teeth, in which there is no bristle or other fibre projecting more than three-eighths of an inch from the block, the duty shall be one cent per hundred tufts or knots; if projecting more than three-eighths of an inch, and not more than one-half of an inch, two cents per hundred tufts or knots; if projecting more than one-half of an inch, and not more than three-fourths of an inch, four cents per hundred tufts or knots; if projecting more than three-fourths of an inch, and not more than one inch, six cents per hundred tufts or knots; and, in addition thereto, on all the foregoing articles, 20 per centum ad valorem. Imagine a custom-house official trying to compute the duties on a consignment of tooth-brushes under this clause. First he must measure the length of the bristles, or the dis-

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tance that they project from the block. Then he must count the tufts or bunches in which they are grouped. If they are more than three-eighths of an inch long, the specific duty is to be one cent per hundred tufts, to which is to be added 20 per cent. ad valorem. If the length exceeds three-eighths of an inch, the specific duty is doubled, and so on. As these articles are generally imported, they come in assorted sizes, differing both as to length and the number of tufts per square inch. So it would be necessary for the custom-house officials to separate the various sizes and styles and then count one of each. Of course, such an intricate method of computing duties must have a purpose, and this can be no other than to increase the rate without disclosing the fact to the public. The present duty is 35 per cent. ad valorem. The McKinley duty was 40 per cent. ad valorem. The combined specific and ad-valorem duty in the Dingley bill will be equivalent to nearly 100 per cent. on the cheaper brushes. Moreover, it will shut out the foreign brushes from our market, and thus cut off the revenue now received from those importations. The public will pay the tax, but it will be paid to private individuals, not to the Treasury.

It is now reported from Washington that a plan is under consideration to stop importations pending the enactment of the Dingley bill, by making the new duties go into effect April 15, no matter when the act becomes law. The bill as it stands fixes May 1 as the date, but it will probably make little difference whether this is changed to April 15 or not. The Republicans are again said to be "taking legal advice," exactly as they were a month ago, as to whether a retroactive tariff is constitutional, but they ought to have made up their minds about this before they began. There is nothing more unconstitutional about making a tariff retroact to April 15 than there is about making it retroact to May 1. The trouble is that the only judicial decision on the subject points to the scheme being illegal. The whole project is chiefly a scare, the idea of its promoters being that if they can only frighten the wicked importers badly enough, they will stop importing pending the passage of the bill, and then begin importing like mad as soon as it is signed—result, under the Wilson tariff, stagnation without revenue; under the Dingley tariff, prosperity with revenue. The reason why the fifteenth rather than the first day of April was selected hardly requires explanation.

Mr. David Lubin and his associated grangers of California, Oregon, Washington, Illinois, Missouri, Virginia, and Pennsylvania are still pushing their bill for the payment of bounties on the export of agricultural produce, in order to put the farmers on an equal footing with manufacturers in respect of favors from the public Treasury. They have presented a memorial to the Senate on this subject which has been printed as a public document. They begin by saying that the idea upon which protection was originally based (that of a temporary means of building up new industries), has been abandoned, and has been supplanted by the new and different conception, that it should be a permanent means of excluding foreign competition in particular trades. Of course this system cannot be applied to industries whose products are exported and must be sold abroad in competition with the products of foreign labor. The price in the foreign market fixes the price in the home market. "Selling the surplus as we do at international prices," says the memorial, "compels us to sell the greater quantity for home use at the same price, for the export and the home price is always the same." It follows from this that the American farmer is handicapped by the protective tariff, and that he can be recouped only by bounties on his exports. So Mr. Lubin and his fellow-grangers ask that a law be passed to pay to any exporter of agricultural products, grown in the United States, at the rate of 10 cents per bushel on wheat and rye, 50 cents per barrel on flour, 5 cents per bushel on corn, 1 cent per pound on cotton, and 2 cents per pound on tobacco and on hops. In order to encourage shipping, it is proposed that when these products are exported in American bottoms, the bounty shall be increased 10 per cent. Incidentally the memorial criticises severely the Elkins or Sewall bill for discriminating duties in favor of imports in American bottoms. This, it says, would be simply an additional tax on the farmer without any compensation whatever to him.

The great advantage of this plan is that it would give to the farmer much more money than it would take from the Treasury. Mr. Lubin and his associates show that the cost to the Government of the proposed bounties on wheat, cotton, and corn would be only $41,000,000 per annum, while the enhanced price of the same articles retained for domestic consumption would be at least $140,000,000. Of course this would have to be paid by the consumers of agricultural products, who are the whole people of the United States. The memorial acknowledges this fact, but insists that the same is true of the protective duties on manufactures. Whatever increase of price takes place must be paid by the farmers, who cannot, under present arrangements, recoup themselves for this loss. Mr. Lubin lays down the broad principle that all the money raised by protective duties ought to be distributed to the classes who are not protected. Failing this, all protective tariffs ought to be repealed. The memorial concludes by saying:

"The abolition of the protective tariff as a means for the protection of manufactures would do away with the claims for protection by an export bounty; but so long as moneys are received on imports for the protection of manufactures, these moneys, or a portion thereof, should be paid out primarily, not for Government expenses, but for export bounties to protect the staples of agriculture, and thus equalize protection by extending it to agriculture as well as to manufactures, protecting thereby the farmers and manufacturers in the United States against the farmers and manufacturers of foreign countries, and thus do away with the injustice of the present system, which protects the manufacturer at the expense of the farmer."

Secretary Sherman grabbed for patronage not wisely but too well when he called for the resignation of Director Furbish of the Bureau of American Republics, and appointed an Ohio Smith to the position. In his haste he overlooked an agreement made last June between Secretary Olney and the ministers of the other countries concerned, by which all applicants for positions in the Bureau must be examined by an executive committee, the best man to win. There is also a neat little provision that "citizens of any of the countries constituting the Union may be candidates for any position in the Bureau." Horrible! We love the Spanish-Americans intensely, and should like their money to help pay salaries to our needy patriots; but the proposal to have a Don or Señor at the head of a Washington bureau is carrying the thing a little too far. We should not have blamed Librarian Smith of Ohio for insisting that he would have nothing to do with any examination. Such methods would soon destroy the whole charm of the Bureau, as well as its usefulness, which consists almost wholly in its making a quiet little retreat for a friend of the Secretary of State. As such, Mr. Sherman was able to preserve it, for Mr. Smith was certified as eligible by the examiners, and so was not driven to the dire alternative of "something equally as good."

That sturdy opponent of the spoils system, Mr. Lucius B. Swift of Indianapolis, in a characteristically vigorous speech before the Massachusetts Reform Club last week, gave some illustrations of the tendency of the new Administration as furnished in his own State. President McKinley has thus far filled three important federal offices in Indiana, and in each case his choice not only is utterly indefensible, but provokes the severest criticism. The position of United States District Attorney demands conspicuous legal ability and high personal character in its incumbent. This office in Indiana has been given to a lawyer of the most ordinary attainments, whose only reputation has been achieved in the lowest arts of political management. The place of Consul-General at Paris has been surrendered to a farmer-politician without education, breeding, or business knowledge, utterly ignorant of the French language and unable to speak his own grammatically. The Indianapolis *News*, the great inde-

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pendent newspaper of the State, has said of this selection that "the appointment is so delightfully unfit that it seems a joke," while the Indianapolis *Journal*, the highest Republican authority, indignantly remarks that Mr. Gowdy can neither read nor write the language of the country to which he is assigned, has no commercial experience or knowledge of the official or semi-official duties of the office, and is totally unfit for the place. "He probably deserved recognition for the vast amount of scavenger work he did." In fact, Gowdy helped greatly in securing McKinley delegates to the St. Louis convention a year ago; he demanded his reward, picked out the office for which he was most ludicrously unfit, and his claim was allowed. Finally, the marshalship has been given to an open and avowed corruptionist—a man who was active in carrying Indiana for Harrison by bribery in 1888, and who boasted of his achievements at the time.

A very strong brief has been filed in the case of Henry W. Corbett, who holds a certificate of appointment by the Governor of Oregon as Senator of the United States. The facts in the case are that the term of Senator Mitchell, his predecessor, expired on the 3d of March. The Legislature of Oregon was not then, and has not been at any time since, in session. When the time for its meeting arrived, the members came to the State capitol, but the House failed to organize and eventually dispersed. Thereupon the Governor of the State, by virtue of section 3, article 1, of the Constitution of the United States, appointed Mr. Corbett to fill the vacancy until such time as the Legislature should elect a Senator. Mr. Corbett's credentials have been referred to the committee on privileges and elections, and he has not been sworn in. The great majority of precedents are in favor of seating a member appointed by a Governor even though the Legislature of the State has actually organized and voted, but failed to elect; yet in the latest case of this kind, that of Lee Mantle of Montana, the Senate declined to award a seat to the Governor's appointee. In 1893 the Legislature of Montana met, duly organized, and balloted in joint convention for United States Senator from day to day for nearly two months. It adjourned on the 3d of March, and within a day or two later the Governor of Montana appointed Lee Mantle to fill the vacancy in the Senate which happened by the expiration, on March 4, of the term of Senator Saunders. The Senate, as we have said, declined to take him in. On the other hand, ten cases are found in the records where Senators have been seated under exactly the same conditions as those of the Mantle case. One of these cases occurred in the first Congress after the adoption of the Constitution.

The charter for Greater New York has been "jammed through" by a vote so large in both houses as to render certain its passage a second time, if that should be made necessary by the refusal of Mayor Strong to give it his approval. It is taken for granted by all its advocates that it is certain to become law, and that the first mayor will be voted for in November. Concerning the probable outcome of that election there is a remarkable consensus of opinion. The Platt leader, Mr. Stranahan, in jamming the charter through the Senate, confessed his belief in a Tammany victory when, in defending the bi-partisan police provision, he said that the Democratic party would control the government of the greater city for a greater part of the time, and it would be dangerous to trust them with a single-headed commission. Senator Malby, speaking as a Republican also, declared the bill to be "political suicide," adding: "You will find Greater New York to be hopelessly Democratic, and that it will be governed by a Democratic boss who will control $75,000,000 in patronage and be supported by 100,000 Democratic majority." Senator Mullin took the same view, and so did Senator Raines, though he is one of the blindest of the Platt dummies. Ex-Mayor Gilroy, of Tammany, speaking without reserve, now that the charter's future seems secure, declares that the Democrats "will carry the city next fall by an overwhelming majority." Nevertheless, the charter has been "jammed through" because it is a measure calculated to destroy non-partisan government in this city. It is, in fact, one of the most skilfully designed measures for the establishment and perpetuation of partisan rule ever put forward for the government of a great city. If Tammany carries the election, Platt will be recognized in its government. Could Platt get any "plums" from a non-partisan mayor? Is not half a loaf better than no bread?

The rural legislator's incurable propensity to make for New York city the kind of laws he likes, rather than the kind this community desires, is shown once more in the proposed Raines amendments to the liquor-tax law. These have no support whatever from this city. All the city's representatives in the Legislature, of both political parties, oppose them as unwise and unnecessary, and in doing this they represent the sentiment of the community. The present law is working satisfactorily, and no complaints have been made in any quarter which are serious enough to demand attention. But Raines and the rural legislators, backed by the Governor, it is said, declare that the large cities must take what he thinks they ought to have in the way of amendments, and they propose to pass them in spite of all opposition. Mr. Platt seems to be occupying neutral ground in the matter, leaving the party to fight it out without his interference. If the amendments are made law, they will send thousands of votes over to Tammany, and make more difficult than ever the defeat of that organization in the election in November; but Platt seems to be doing his best to give the city over to Tammany, and his course in this matter is at least consistent with that in passing the charter.

Every day's news seems to show more clearly that the solution of the Cretan question arrived at by the Powers is no solution at all. A couple of weeks ago *Figaro* wrote of the ultimatum of that date as "An Ultimatum in Distress," and to-day it might almost be said of the famous pacific blockade that it is the Powers whom it most seriously blockades. The aim is to give the Cretans autonomy, but the thankless fellows say they do not want it and will not have it. The aim also is to get the Turks to withdraw from the island. But the only official reply of the Porte yet made public does little more than thank the Powers for undertaking to clear out the Greeks, and say that the Sultan would be delighted to "discuss" with the Ambassadors what next is to be done. In fact, the Sultan is ready to "discuss" any subject for any length of time. But the growing impatience and indignation of English and French public opinion, and now even of German, make it more and more impossible for the Powers to persist in their present unpopular and ineffective course.

If, as has been reported, the Powers have agreed to blockade the entire Greek coast, beginning with the Piræus, Corinth, and two other ports, a question of the first importance will be raised here. We have a trade with Greece which, in the year ending June 30, 1896, amounted, according to the Treasury figures, to $720,386 of imports and $191,046 of exports. As long as Greece is not at war, Americans have the same right to trade with Greece, in any articles they please, as with England, and the Powers have no more right to stop an American merchant from sending a cargo of arms and ammunition to Athens than to stop him from sending one to Constantinople. Yet this is precisely what a pacific blockade thoroughly enforced would now mean. The attempt will no doubt be made to disguise the fact by saying the blockade applies to Greeks only, or to vessels flying the Greek flag. But the question for us is not merely whose flag is stopped, but whose trade is stopped. An American cargo properly consigned to Greece is just as sacred from interference as an American ship would be. Surely our Government does not think that it can meet this question by doing and saying nothing.

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THE ARBITRATION TREATY.

THE treaty amendment proposed by Mr. Chilton of Texas provides that the United States shall submit to arbitration all questions which the Senate shall decide to be fit for arbitration. At first sight this looks as if it were merely a new form of the amendment, already reported, by which the Senate is to retain the final power of rejection in every instance; but its mover, unless we are mistaken, has something in his mind more serious than this.

The practice of the Government for a hundred years has been that the Senate should act simply as a check upon the Executive in the negotiation of treaties. This has been so from the nature of the case. The President is in constant communication with foreign Powers, and indeed it is only through ambassadors, ministers, the Secretary of State, and other agents responsible to him that we can hold any communication with them or make any treaties. When he has made an agreement of any kind with a foreign Power, the Senate is called in and ratifies or rejects it. There have been a great many indications since the war that to the Senators who busy themselves with foreign affairs, men like Lodge, and Morgan, and Daniel, of whom there is a large enough number to exercise a powerful influence, especially about matters as to which the greater number of Senators know little or nothing, this is a most galling and irritating way of carrying on a government. Their idea of the true way to deal with foreign affairs is that the President should send for the great men of the Senate, and find out beforehand how they would like to have the foreign affairs of the Government carried on, what their views are about the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and Cuban belligerency, and the fisheries questions, and then do what they tell him. This view of their relation to him came out with great distinctness in the rage and fury which accompanied their long quarrel with Cleveland, and it was at the bottom of Don Cameron's report on the President's power to recognize or not recognize the existence of actual political facts abroad. That report was, in substance, that it made no difference what the facts reported by his agents to him were; if his superiors told him they did not exist, then they did not, for him, have any existence.

This theory of foreign affairs is not in all its details, perhaps, capable of realization; but, like all other idealists, Lodge and Morgan and Daniel want to come as near attaining it as possible. They were baffled by Cleveland, who insisted on the old view, that the President was to act in foreign affairs without taking his orders from the Senate; but when they got hold of the Arbitration treaty, and found that they could tie it up until Cleveland went out, they put their backs to the wall, and determined either to kill it or to pervert it to their own purposes. It looks now as if, finding the former scheme impossible on account of public sentiment, their plan was to change the treaty into a device for making the President to a great extent a puppet in their hands, and getting a practical control over foreign affairs much greater than they ever had before. To let the President arbitrate questions for five years without consulting Lodge and Morgan and Daniel and Foraker would never do; it would really weaken those gentlemen's power terribly. "Where would the navy be?" as Foraker happily says.

Accordingly, they have hit upon the plan of notifying the President that they will not agree in advance to any arbitration, even under the treaty, but will reserve the right to agree or disagree; and now Mr. Chilton has improved on this by adding "and, mind you, the subject must be fit for us to arbitrate." What subjects men like Foraker, and Lodge, or Daniel, or Morgan consider fit for arbitration no President can find out except by asking them. Morgan, for instance, does not think the canal question fit to arbitrate, another Senator thinks that any arbitration which threatens to reduce the naval appropriation bills is indecent, and there are other subjects which they as well as Lodge and Daniel would not dream of arbitrating because they involve the Monroe Doctrine; but no one can find out what they are except by asking them, because each one of them explains the Monroe Doctrine differently. Accordingly, arbitration under the new system, as it must be conceived in their great minds, could go on only if the President were to consent to become their puppet, and let the actual foreign policy of the Government be carried on by their foreign-affairs committee. Under the new system the President and the Secretary of State would first find out what this committee could get through the Senate in the way of treaties, and negotiate for that. The most ambitious or richest men in the Senate would get hold of the committee, and the grand scheme would be put in operation.

The failure of the treaty would not, in our opinion, be a fatal blow to the good relations between England and the United States. The agreement between the countries sanctioned by the Presidents of both political parties, with the overwhelming approval of the country, is already a great gain for peace; but its confirmation, loaded down with such amendments as that of Mr. Chilton, would be an ominous triumph for the Senate in its struggle with the Executive, and a blow at Mr. McKinley's prestige from which he could hardly recover. There is really no alternative between the President's directing the foreign policy of this country and surrendering its control. Mr. McKinley's notification to all the world that he stands by his predecessor's treaty will make the result, whatever it may be, all the more significant.

THE SCOPE OF THE DECISION.

THE fall in stocks which took place last week is accounted for on all sides by the alarm created among business men by the anti-Trust decision of the Supreme Court. This is owing to the vast extent of the interests affected. The railroads of the country represent (we take the figures from Poor's Railway Manual) about $11,000,000,000, a sum by the side of which all the investments of capital in so-called industrial Trusts is small. Half of this $11,000,000,000 is debt of some kind; the rest is stock, or, in other words, the value of the property over and above the debt. All that the stockholders received on their investment in 1895 was $83,175,774, or very much less than two per cent. Any considerable reduction means general bankruptcy. The railway systems of the country are all managed under Joint Traffic contracts, the object of which is to prevent sudden railroad "wars," by establishing a reasonable tariff of rates. It is only by this means that bankruptcy in many quarters has been averted; and widespread railroad bankruptcy, as we know by experience, means general panic. The anti-Trust decision holds that every one of these contracts is illegal and criminal, and it was followed by the immediate withdrawal of railroads from them, accompanied by predictions of new rate wars. The effect of the decision in paralyzing business, only just beginning to recover from the disasters of 1893 and 1894, is, therefore, very serious. It is all the more serious because no one can tell what can be done to meet its effects.

The dissenting opinion of Justice White, in which the four Judges who refused to concur in the majority opinion joined, brings out, more forcibly than any lay explanation can, the curious reasoning which underlies the decision. Justice White points out, what Justice Peckham fully conceded, that the contract in the case was "only an agreement between the corporations by which a uniform classification of freight is obtained, by which the secret undercutting of rates is sought to be avoided, and the rates as stated in the published rate-sheets, and which, as a general rule, are required by law to be filed with the Interstate Commerce Commission, are secured against arbitrary and sudden changes," and that its provisions are reasonable. The contract, therefore, but for the act of Congress, would be valid. But it is a contract "in restraint of trade," because it is designed to restrain the general right of a railroad to make what contracts as to rates it pleases. Congress says that every such contract is criminal. When the law says "every," the courts have no power to say "some." If Congress had meant only unreasonable contracts, it would have said so, and consequently

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the act makes criminal any contract in restraint of trade, whether reasonable or unreasonable.

Justice White then shows that the abandonment of the test of reasonableness, to determine whether the law shall permit contracts or not, is really the abandonment of any test whatever. Before this statute was passed, the courts held contracts between man and man void if in unreasonable restraint of trade, simply because it was the only distinction that could be applied; the act of Congress now says that any contract which restrains trade at all is criminal. But to define the phrase "as embracing every contract which in any degree produced that effect (of restraining trade) would be violation of reason, because it would include all those contracts which are the very essence of trade, and would be equivalent to saying that there should be no trade, and therefore nothing to restrain." Referring to the remarkable fact that Justice Peckham, in the course of his own opinion, declares that, notwithstanding anything said by him, some contracts may still be legal, Justice White adds:

"The dilemma which would necessarily arise from defining the words 'contracts in restraint of trade' so as to destroy trade by rendering illegal the contracts upon which trade depends, and yet presupposing that trade would continue and should not be restrained, is shown by an argument advanced, and which has been compelled by the exigency of the premise upon which it is based. Thus, after insisting that the word *every* is all-embracing, it is said from the necessity of things it will not be held to apply to covenants in a restraint of trade which are collateral to a sale of property, because not 'supposed' to be within the letter or spirit of the statute. But how, I submit, can it be held that the words 'every contract in restraint of trade' embrace all such contracts, and yet at the same time it be said that certain contracts of that nature are not included?"

He also points out that the construction given by the court to the statute will have an effect on contracts involving the right to dispose of one's labor which will be the exact opposite of what was intended by Congress. The act was designed to protect the liberty of the individual against arbitrary powers brought about by any kind of combination. It was applied in the Debs case (158 U. S. 564) to an unreasonable and criminal combination of workingmen. But it is now held that a reasonable agreement is just as criminal. "It follows that the construction which reads the rule of reason out of the statute embraces within its inhibition every contract or combination by which workingmen seek to peaceably better their condition. It is, therefore, as I see it, absolutely true to say that the construction now adopted which works out such results, not only frustrates the plain purpose intended to be accomplished by Congress, but also makes the statute tend to an end never contemplated, and against the accomplishment of which its provisions were enacted." In other words, a strike, or agreement under which a strike may be ordered, is a crime.

When law parts company with reason, as a test of its own rules, one must expect to see a thousand curious and unexpected consequences follow. It may be worth while to give one more illustration. Judge Peckham's argument may be used to destroy itself, as follows: All contracts in restraint of trade are crimes. A criminal contract, however, is always treated by the courts as wholly void. But if a contract in restraint of trade is void, it is no contract, and if there is no contract, there is no restraint of trade, and consequently no crime has been committed. That this argument is sound we do not maintain; but it is as sound as the argument against which it is directed. That argument, it cannot too often be repeated, is at bottom that any contract restrains trade, because it restricts the right which, but for the contract, would exist, to make another and a wholly different contract.

This decision has been rendered under an act founded upon the power of Congress to regulate "commerce between the States." Every one familiar with the history of the litigation about State control of railway rates knows that this power is the same in its nature as that of the State to regulate rates within its boundaries. As to that power, the Supreme Court has over and over again announced that "a power to regulate is not a power to destroy," and that the only question about railway rates for courts to go into was whether they were reasonable or unreasonable (Stone vs. Farmers' Loan and Trust Co., 116 U. S. 307; Reagan vs. same, 154 U. S. 362). But now it seems that the reasonableness of a contract is of no consequence, and the power over contracts in Congress is quite as much a power to destroy as to regulate.

ECLIPSE OF INTELLIGENCE.

ALTHOUGH Mr. Dingley has been shamed into the restoration of books and apparatus for the use of colleges to the free list, his putting a tax on them after so many years of exemption, and his remarkable defence of it, are worth notice once more as an illustration of that growing disregard or contempt of the political class for the higher civilization, of which we have so often spoken. Knowledge, whether expressed through books, or professors, or scientific men, or professional men, they seem every day to consider of less consequence. They seem more and more disposed to believe that the experience of the human race and the achievements of the human intellect have no direct connection with the work of government, or the social and political condition of mankind. Politics and culture for them run, as many writers have maintained religion and science do, in parallel lines, without any intercommunication. We may apparently go on for ever enlarging the bounds of human knowledge without producing any effect whatever on legislation, and we may go on legislating for ever without making any improvement in the condition of the people. Government has apparently nothing to do with the popular comfort, convenience, and happiness. Its object is to promote the interests of "the party," or rather of the office-holders. Provided they are pleased and satisfied, nothing else signifies.

For instance, Mr. Dingley naïvely confessed that his principal reason for taxing books and apparatus was that it annoyed the custom-house officers to arrange the exemptions for colleges and libraries. The ease of these gentlemen was his principal concern; the diffusion of knowledge among the people was a matter of secondary importance. In like manner, although it is impossible for large accumulations of first-rate works of art to be made in America without eventually reaching and elevating the masses, and although we can obtain them only through the munificence or vanity of rich men, as our Government pays no attention to art at all, to Mr. Dingley this is nothing compared to the wicked satisfaction which pictures give rich men. He would rather poor Americans never, or but rarely, saw a picture or a statue, than that a rich man should gloat over his gallery. To "get even" with millionaires, he thinks, is of more importance than to give the people art education, and is one of the great objects of a tariff.

The oddest thing in all this is that Mr. Dingley is himself a college graduate, but there are no more signs of college in his arguments and in his view of the true nature of national progress than if he had been brought up in a tepee. In truth, one of the most startling things in connection with our collegiate education is its failure, as a rule, to prevent the graduate, when he enters politics, from sinking mentally to the existing political level. This has been the history of the larger number of what are called our "gentlemen in politics." They rarely spend a year with politicians without adopting their standards and their view of civilization, namely, that the *unum necessarium* in a citizen's career is to think of the interests of the party, no matter what its objects, and no matter what discredit the party may throw on his own education or mental processes. There is, for instance, in matters of trade, finance, or taxation, no source of instruction which is worth anything compared to human experience. All, or nearly all, we know about tariff or currency comes to us from the record of the experiments men have already tried in these fields. Nearly everything else is dreams which speculators tell their fellows. In these things, therefore, college graduates ought to be peculiarly strong. But let one of them live for a while among the bimetallists or the silver men, and he begins to yell for silver, just as if the world was created yesterday, and men were looking about eagerly for a circulating medium, and were desirous of

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holding a "conference" with somebody to see what would be the best material for money. In fact, the whole silver movement is an ignoring of human experience, and how many traces of college experience are there in it?

If, too, the Barbarians in the sixth century had taken into their heads to keep up the forms of Roman government, and had got up a Senate of their own, can there be a doubt that they would have wholly overlooked the debating and persuading part of legislative proceedings, and have confined the body to voting on the proposals of some powerful chief? He would have said what he wished, and they would have assented to it by a division, probably amid shouts of laughter. If some old Roman, lingering among the ruins of the state, had got on his feet to make a speech in opposition, they would have been amused by his pertinacity, and have probably at last squelched him with a whack of the flat of a sword, to show him what his "amendments" were worth. It is now 1,500 years since Alaric entered Rome, and yet we had just such a scene at Albany two or three days ago. Judging from what occurred there, one would have supposed that not one step had been made in the art of government in all that time. The proceedings were really like a theatrical burlesque on parliamentary government. A huge and complicated charter for a great city was passed with about as much haste, and as much attention to objections, as general orders for a plundering expedition. The amendments could not have caused more amusement if they had been suggestions to Alaric.

For the failure to offer the slightest explanation or defence of the measure by its friends, for the total silence with regard to all protests against it, no matter from whom they emanated, including the people who were to live under it, all the leading citizens, all the professions, all the mercantile corporations, all the jurists and experts, we should have to go back nearly two thousand years. But we should not get a parallel even then. For in the Greek and Roman world, when debate began to disappear, it was because the reign of violence had set in, because things had begun to be decided, not by the vote, but by the sword. Here, on the contrary, all meaning has departed from the forms of legislation without any disorder or formal overriding of the Constitution or the laws. Legislators hurry through the forms, not because there is a dictator at the door, but because they have found somebody to pay their election expenses, and because it is rather funny to set popular opinion at naught. There has been nothing like this in history. It is the most extraordinary betrayal of a community by its chosen representatives on record. If it had been marked by some bloodshed, there would be more reason in it. But, as a huge joke, it is positively appalling.

ITALY AND CRETE.

One of the most painful things in the Cretan incident is the prominent part taken by Italy in warning Greece and the Cretans, in blockading the Cretans and even firing on them, and in advising them to put up with the Turks in some shape a little longer. This rôle sits with an ill grace on all the Powers, but on none so awkwardly as on Italy. If there were such a thing as consistency in politics, Admiral Canevaro would have been all along remonstrating with Russia and Germany, and encouraging the Greeks to persevere; for Italy knows, as no other nation concerned knows, the road on which Crete is travelling, and has been travelling for two centuries. It is no more criminal or inexpedient for Greece to desire the union of all the Greek-speaking islands under one government of their own than for Italy to desire the union of Naples and Tuscany, and Parma and Modena, and Lombardy and Venice, with Piedmont. Crete has for centuries been subjected to even more paltry and cruel despotism than Italy has known, without loss of religion or language or love of independence. Italy has not suffered one-quarter as much from her tyrants as Greece, for both Austrians and Spaniards were at least Christians, and civilized men. The King of Naples, the "King Bomba" of history, savage as he was, was an angel of light compared to the Sultan. The Italian traditions on which these oppressors trampled so ruthlessly were not more glorious than those of Greece.

If we are to believe contemporary accounts, the mental and moral condition of large parts of Italy was as low as or lower than that of any part of Greece to-day. D'Azeglio testifies in his *Ricordi* that in 1847, just before the Revolution, he found in the Papal States, or in Naples at least, neither religion nor morality. The people of these states, he said, knew nothing about right or wrong. What they knew about in their stead was the possible and the impossible. With them *must* took the entire place of *ought*. Moreover—and at this juncture this is most interesting—there was a widespread belief, both among foreigners and among a large proportion of the natives, that Italy could never be united, that the various states were too dissimilar, and were severed by too many differences of standards, ideas, and traditions. Stendahl said this in the beginning of the century; Metternich said it; nearly all the pompous "bigwigs" and publicists of other countries said it, down to 1848. Even D'Azeglio was disposed to agree with it. Ardent patriot as he was, his plan of union so late as 1859 was a federal union presided over by the Pope, much as he despised him. Louis Napoleon had the same idea. After Villafranca his plan of reconstruction was something in the nature of a federation also.

Curiously enough, too, Charles Albert and his son Victor Emmanuel were denounced in exactly the same terms in which the King of Greece and his son are now denounced: they were ambitious; their patriotism was all humbug; they cared nothing for Italian unity; what they sought was aggrandizement, and they would probably, in the end, meet with the retribution which awaits all self-seeking charlatans. But they, like the King of Greece, kept "never-minding." They continued their intrigues. They got foreign aid when they could. They fought at Novara; they fought at Solferino; they fought at Casteggio. They were never successful alone; they owed the greater part of Italy to the French, and they owed Rome to the Germans. The fate of Southern Italy was settled by Garibaldi. He and his Thousand, like Vassos and his Thousand, put an end to all doubts about Italy's capacity, and the plébiscite to those about Italy's desire for unity. The publicists and the jurors and the croakers and the "intelligent observers" and the people "who knew Italy well," all, as the boys say, "shut up." Italy had become a nation through long undying aspirations, through much misery, through a series of happy accidents, and through foreign aid.

One would think that, considering all this, the efforts of a kindred race which shares with Italians the great traditions of the ancient world, and has had in the modern world an experience tenfold more bitter, to do exactly what the Italians have done, would meet from the Italians sympathy and encouragement, not threats, warnings, rebukes, cannonades, and blockades, under the direction, of all persons in the world, of the Italian Admiral. There is no reason, historical, religious, linguistic, or geographical, why Crete should not belong to Greece, any more than why Sicily should not belong to Italy. The share of Italy in this "concert" business can reflect nothing on her but discredit. There is much reason for believing that the "concert" has been a fraud from the beginning, got up by Russia in order to keep Turkey for herself without having to fight for it. There never has been any good reason for believing that if France, Italy, and England had talked to the Sultan during the past year in the way that they have been talking to the Greeks, they would not have brought him to reason. In letting him run on, and crying "concert of the Powers," they have simply betrayed the interests of civilization of which they were the guardians. Not a particle of proof has ever reached the public that war would have been caused by anything but an open attempt on the part of some Power to take possession of something. Interference to restore order or prevent murder, rape, and arson would not, there is every reason to believe, have caused anything more serious than an improvement in the Turkish methods of govern-

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ment. The treatment of Crete is doing much to justify this conclusion.

M. FERDINAND BRUNETIÈRE.

PARIS, March 13, 1897.

M. FERDINAND BRUNETIÈRE sails to-day for New York to deliver at Johns Hopkins University, in the Percy Turnbull course, a series of lectures on French poetry. It will be remembered that, in accordance with the terms of this foundation, some one who has gained distinction as a writer of poetry, or as a critical student of the poetic art, is to be invited annually to Baltimore. It is in the latter capacity that M. Brunetière goes to you. The present one is the sixth year of his lectureship, and those who have filled it have been two Americans (Mr. Stedman and Prof. Norton) and three British subjects (Profs. Jebb of Cambridge, Tyrrell of Dublin, and Adam Smith of Glasgow). M. Brunetière is the first Continental and French scholar who has lectured on this foundation, and President Gilman is to be congratulated on his excellent choice, for it would be difficult to find a man better fitted than M. Brunetière to represent in America all that is highest and most thorough in the European university and critical world, and whose personal characteristics and qualities are of such an elevated and remarkable order.

It is as a critic, of course, that M. Brunetière stands out preëminent in contemporary French literature. His very manners and intercourse with men are affected by his rôle as a critic. He unconsciously, perhaps consciously, describes himself when, in his Academy reception address devoted to John Lemoinne, he expresses the hope that the latter's "discretion and even coldness may always find some imitators among us," and then goes on to say: "How can one speak with freedom about the things and men of the day if he do not first oppose a rampart to the encroaching familiarity of some people and to the ordinary commonplaceness of others? . . . The lot of the critic is hard, . . . obliged thus to assume an air of resistance which the world is only too prone to interpret as a mark of ill temper. And the world is right, but the critic is not wrong."

Two qualities are especially prominent in Brunetière's criticisms—the variety of the subjects which he treats, and the boldness and independence of his judgments. History, biography, poetry, science—nothing seems beyond his reach and ken. Nor is he a respecter of reputations, a fault so common in France. He never hesitates to give his opinion, even if it be an adverse one—I am almost tempted to say, particularly if it be an adverse one—concerning any writer of any school or nation, not excepting his French contemporaries and even his colleagues of the Academy. Francisque Sarcey refused a seat "under the cupola" because it would trammel his dramatic critic's pen. But "Pierre Loti," Taine, and other Academicians and contributors to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* know full well that Ferdinand Brunetière has not hesitated, for this reason, to "speak his mind." This independence is a side of his character that awakens the warmest admiration. His bold attack on science—he pronounced it "a failure"—in his pamphlet 'La Science et la Religion,' brought down a storm upon his head, which, however, was not at all disagreeable to him. He did not hesitate to defend the Revolution against Taine's assault upon it, though Taine was his friend and a contributor to his magazine. His opponents declare that every page of his pamphlet 'La Moralité de la Doctrine Évolutive' may be made the subject of a dispute. He did not even spare Victor Hugo, apotheosized living though he was. This same unshackled spirit is shown in his praise of the socialistic novels of George Sand, from which it seems evident that, if he were a Londoner, he would at least be a Fabian. This phase of his nature struck M. d'Haussonville, who imagines, in his reception address, Brunetière's having entered Government employ, but immediately expresses the fear that he would soon have been dismissed on account of his "independent mind."

Closely allied to this refractoriness to restraint is Brunetière's authoritativeness. To quote another passage from his speech on John Lemoinne: "Who of us has not his feeble sides? Mine, one of mine, has always been a liking for the Doctrinaires, and I have such a feeling of indulgence for them that I forgive them not only for having had doctrines, but for having changed them whenever they found good doctrinal reasons for so doing." "He would like the University to be a sort of regiment," said one of Brunetière's friends to me recently, "provided he were the marshal." As an editor he is an autocrat. He rules over the *Revue des Deux Mondes* with the proverbial hand of iron gloved in velvet of Richelieu, who, by the way, is naturally one of his ideals. If he were a politician, it would be safe to say that he would be classed among the "autoritaires" of the Third Republic, and the dash of Robespierre which is seen in his physiognomy might suggest many speculations as to what part he would have played if his strong personality had been cast among the stormy days of the Revolution and Empire.

We should naturally expect to find M. Brunetière a moralist, and such he surely is. He here reveals himself as an "heroic pessimist," an expressive term defined in this extract from one of his essays on Pascal, in the third volume of 'Études Critiques':

> "I know that this word pessimism has been, for some time past, compromised in an unfortunate manner; and the fact that many persons employ it to-day, does not at all prove that they all understand it. . . . If we say in a general way 'Life is bad,' they imagine that pessimism offers no other issue but 'the destruction of life.' They are all wrong in taking this view. What is meant is simply that the life in this world does not end here, that man's final destiny is outside of and beyond the terrestrial existence. Now such a belief is so far removed from the principle of despair, discouragement, and inertia which they preach that it is, on the contrary, found at the bottom of the great religions."

Brunetière's volume, 'Questions de Critique,' offers innumerable examples of his love of taking issue with traditions and prejudices of long standing. Thus, he holds that one of his heroes, Bossuet, was of a mild, gentle temperament. The common opinion that Théophile Gautier's works are rich in form but poor in ideas is not shared by M. Brunetière, who makes out a good case on the other side; for him Gautier not only is "the Benvenuto of style," but is chock-full of thought. He does not hesitate to come bravely to the defence of the "précieuses," whom he considers to have been real benefactors of the French language; and in his study of Molière, in the first volume of the 'Études Critiques,' is a two-page semi-apology for the great dramatist's detestable wife. His plea for plagiarism is another of his curious paradoxes. In fact, he denies the existence of plagiarism, holding that he who gives a new and definitive form to a plot thereby becomes the rightful originator of it.

M. Brunetière has his likes and dislikes, and both are decided and clear-cut. He rather avoids, for instance, all consideration of "the tender passion," and abhors the scandals that are so often connected with it in literature and history. A notable exception is a three-page passage on love in the essay on the philosophy of Schopenhauer, in the volume entitled 'Questions de Critique.' He says of Musset that he became great only when he experienced love. "Absolute love is so rare a thing," he remarks, "that it is as seldom met with as beauty or genius." He discountenances the holding of banquets in honor of great men: "Ils ont pensé pour nous et nous mangeons pour eux." He is also heartily set against memoirs in which the *ego* is brought too often and too prominently to the front. Thus he has no patience with the Goncourt volumes. He pardons the *I* of Montaigne and La Fontaine because it refers to mankind in general and not to these in particular, and he excuses the egotism of Rousseau because he regards him as the first decisive entrance into literature of the plebeian. Divorce he cannot accept; and in order that husband and wife may be the less likely to fall out, he opposes co-education, or rather the same instruction for men and women. Here he would apply Legouvé's formula, "Equality in difference." Protestantism is repugnant to him because it fosters individualism, Brunetière's greatest *bête noire*, and he never lets an opportunity pass to give the Reformation a rap, though not on religious grounds, for Brunetière has always been and is still an agnostic, notwithstanding the pretensions of some pious old priests who have discovered a sign of his gradual returning to the fold in his praise of the Church in the pamphlet already named, 'La Science et la Religion.' In his reviews little if any space is given up to the light, anecdotic side of the characters whom he is studying, and idle gossip is always shut out. In the essay on Musset mentioned above, he touches most discreetly on the George Sand episode, which is the more notable as at this moment so much is being printed about their liaison.

M. Brunetière owes not a little of his reputation to his lectures at the École Normale and the Sorbonne, and to the series, published in book form as 'Les Époques du Théâtre Français,' delivered at the Odéon theatre during the winter of 1891-92, when Brunetière appeared for the first time before the general public as a lecturer. Until then his remarkable talent as a speaker had been revealed to and applauded by the very limited auditory of the schools. The success of this series was marked, and the next year M. Brunetière won still greater applause at the Sorbonne with the series on 'L'Évolution de la Poésie Lyrique en France,' which fills two volumes, and which has added his name to that brilliant galaxy of famous Sorbonne orators beginning with Royer-Collard, Guizot, Cousin, and Villemain, and coming down to Jules Simon and Caro. These Odéon and Sorbonne lectures had much to do with opening to their author the doors of the Academy. As a lecturer M. Brunetière displays all the graces of the true orator—a vivacious physiognomy, fitting gestures, an earnest regard, and a penetrating and ringing voice. His rather small stature alone militates against his impressiveness. His clear enunciation, which he has of late practised himself (in view of his American audi-

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ences) to make as deliberate as possible, will enable him to be understood by ears little accustomed to the French language.

M. Brunetière leaves his native land for the first time. In fact, his departure has seemed so odd to some minds on this side that it has been asked why he goes. Did the suggestion come from his friend Paul Bourget, who, as he once remarked to me, "knows more about me than anybody else," or did that enthusiastic admirer of our country, Mme. Blanc, who makes her second trip to America with M. and Mme. Brunetière, fortunately for them and for us, persuade him by offering to act as their cicerone? Not at all. It was simply President Gilman's invitation which decided M. Brunetière to cross the Atlantic:

"Let us suppose that our Sorbonne or our College of France," he writes in a personal letter from which I am permitted to make this extract, "which have not the means, unfortunately, to do so, had formerly invited Prof. Whitney, for example, or were to-day to invite Prof. William James, to come to France to lecture on linguistics or psychology. This is exactly my case. My going to America to lecture—I do not say simply *going* to America—in any other manner would not have been in accord with my character or my position. But from the moment, on the contrary, when the invitation took the form it did, I was too much honored by it not to accept it, as I did, eagerly."

If I am not mistaken, the American public will fully appreciate the spirit and manner in which M. Brunetière sails to the United States, for distinguished foreign lecturers have not always visited us in this mind.

THEODORE STANTON.

ANCIENT MONUMENTS OF THE DECCAN.

BHOPAL, January 30, 1897.

To see India from behind a locomotive may suit the globe-trotter's modest desires, but the imperious student who wants to learn the land must quit the line and plunge into the country. For not only is it by this means alone that one can study the native in his unsophisticated state, but some of the best monuments of antiquity are situated far away from the railway. There is only one drawback in making these excursions, and that is the impossibility of acquiring a new dialect for every trip. For, after learning enough Hindustani to get along with on the border of civilization, if one then crosses that border the discovery is quickly made that the Hindustani of the villagers, with the exception of the local officials, is not the Hindustani of commerce.

This, however, is but a trifle, and, together with a certain awkwardness in procuring anything to eat or drink, may be dismissed as one of the petty inconveniences of travel. Yet for the encouragement of such tourists as would like to visit the Buddhist caves, but feel rather appalled at the prospect of the long *tonga*-drive to Ellóra and to Ajanta, I may add that the Nizam's new railway, from Munmur past Ellóra and through Aurungabad, will be completed within two years, and that a fine highway is now making from Pachora to Ajanta, so that even the globe-trotter may soon make these trips.

As I could not wait for the completion of either road, I filled my tiffin-basket and mounted the Nizam's mail-*tonga*, prepared for a jaunt of fifty six miles. We left Nandgaon about eight in the morning, and, though the horses were changed every hour and galloped all the way, yet they were such wretched little beasts that the journey lasted till sundown. Apart from the feeble condition of our decrepit steeds, the run was like that of an old-fashioned stage-coach. Until we reached the British boundary-line we were preceded by a plain national guardsman; but on crossing into the Nizam's territory we were met and escorted further by a much more gorgeous creature. This cavalryman carried a lance, which he was fond of twirling in his fingers, as a ballet-girl twirls her wand, and he was arrayed most gloriously in a magenta turban, white jacket and trousers, red sash, green socks, and pink shoes, while his saddle was red and yellow. He spent most of the time cantering ahead of us, but occasionally he would return and swoop round us with his lance in rest, his black face shining with the pleasure of showing off his horsemanship before a Sâ'b (sahib). I am a very unimportant Sâ'b, but he did not know that, and, besides, a Sâ'b's a Sâ'b, and, whether he will or no, a very lofty person in native estimation.

Only one incident occurred in the course of our long drive, and this it would be ridiculous to mention except for the illustration it gives of local character. But in relating it I shall sink my individuality in that of "the Sâ'b." For in short the great event is that the Sâ'b's hat blows off. Instant consternation prevails. The driver reins up his horses with a jerk, and looks in bewilderment at the light pith helmet, which is racing across the prairie. The Brahmin and Mohammedan, who occupy the back seat of the *tonga* and despise each other so heartily that they have not spoken a word since the start, now converse together in low tones, saying: "The Sâ'b has lost his hat; what a calamity has befallen us." The Mohammedan says further: "I would hasten after the Sâ'b's hat, but I am lame of one leg, and cannot run." The Brahmin, however, says nothing. He knows that he is the next in rank to the Sâ'b, and as he has never in his life done anything for anybody, he is not going to begin now. The Sâ'b himself sits cross-legged on the Nizam's mail-bag and waits patiently, knowing that in this favored land all things work together for the glory of the Sâ'b, and that it would be the merest folly for him to serve himself, not to speak of the danger of sunstroke in the present instance.

Meanwhile the driver has produced an idea, and in consequence makes as if he would hand the reins to the Sâ'b to hold, while he himself pursues the flying *topi*. But the good man, being of low caste, cannot quite make up his mind to offer such an insult to the Sâ'b. He looks at the reins, then at the Sâ'b, then at the reins again, and shakes his head and sighs. The Sâ'b now lights a *trichy*, to measure by its ash how long it will take somebody to do something. The whole *tonga* relapses into mournful silence, while the pith helmet cavorts about the distant horizon.

But at last the driver has a genuine inspiration. Not an instant does he hesitate, but, drawing forth his horn, blows into it a mighty blast; not the cheerful peal with which the *tonga* erst brushed aside the herds of cows and buffaloes upon the route, or shrieked warning to the thousand "relief-workers," as they pounded stone upon the highway, men, women, and children, a village of famine planted athwart the *tonga's* track; but a long, loud, plaintive wail, the sign of deep distress. Far ahead the lancer hears it and turns at once. He is on a little slope about an eighth of a mile away. One can almost see the working of his quick, imaginative brain in the dramatic gesture with which he wheels and gazes down the road: "The Nizam's mail is in peril; I, the guardian of the mail, will rescue it." Down comes his lance to rest again (whether because that is the most picturesque way or the easiest way to carry a lance), and in a twinkling the brave guardsman is tearing along towards the *tonga* at full gallop, turban flying, teeth gleaming, like a Bedouin out of the desert.

Another blast from the horn, quick and sharp, and the driver points across the prairie and shouts *Dekho* (look), while the Sâ'b echoes the word and points to his bare head. The lancer understands, and with a turn of his hand heads his horse obliquely for the narrow ditch and rowels him easily over it into the field. Without pausing, he plants his lance in the soft earth and dashes after the fugitive pith. A short run, a dismount—the lancer picks up the hat and trots back with it. But with what smiles and gestures, with what triumph is it returned! "Behold me, your call was not in vain; the brave soldier will always thus protect you!" The Sâ'b hastily fishes out something from his vest-pocket, while the knight shrinks back in horror at the suggestion. But the Sâ'b, who has had experience in these matters, pitches the money on the ground, and mutters to the driver, *Chello* (go ahead). Off starts the *tonga* again, soon overtaken by the joyful lancer, who has lingered behind for a moment, but now reappears as smiling and jaunty as ever.

At Ellóra, or, as the driver calls it, Eróla, the chief attraction is not the sculpture or the painting, but the cave-temples themselves. Nevertheless, there are some very rich effects in blue and gold here, the color on the wall being almost as bright as at Ajanta. Many of the statues, too, are well done, though in fineness of detail these cannot compare with the marvellous work in granite found at Madura and Trichinopoly. The stone is very soft, so that all the bas-reliefs have weathered badly, though they are only a thousand years old. The most elaborate carving is in the Brahmanic division, for the caves are divided into three sets, those of the Buddhists, Brahmins, and Jains.

But, from an architectual point of view there is enough to admire. The Kailas is of course the crown of the series. Whereas, the other temples, hollowed out of the rock, preserve the aspect of true caves in having the hill itself for their roof, this wonderful temple is cut out of the rock in such a way as to have its own roof. This can be accomplished of course only by carving away the whole hill-top of rock above, leaving the great Kailas temple in a sort of pit, where the temple itself, its roof with the minute carvings thereon, the porch in front, the broad court-yard around the temple with its decorated pillars, the interior of the temple with its statues, shrine, and intricate carvings, are all chiselled out of one piece of stone, which has been cut away within and without, a veritable *tour de force* of Brahmanic architecture. The courtyard is 276x154 feet, and the pillars that stand in it are nearly fifty feet high.

The older caves have all plain pillars, but the later ones are profusely decorated. In all the Buddhist caves I noticed the frequent use of stucco, such as is found in Ajanta, where the mural paintings are made on quarter-of-an-inch thickness of stucco or plaster. Two things surprised me at Ellóra. One was that in the bas-reliefs the boys, who are studying, are all represented as sitting down on chairs at little tables, resting their books on the tables instead of holding them on their laps and squatting on the ground, as do all

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the school-boys in India to-day. These figures are in the Buddhist caves. The other strange thing was that though the Brahmanic caves were made when the equality of the Hindu triune god was formally recognized, yet Brahmâ never receives his rights, for, when he is represented with the great sectarian gods, he is always carved as a stumpy insignificant dwarf between the mighty figures of Vishnu and Shiva. This shows indisputably, I think, the correctness of the view which, on purely literary evidence, I have insisted on in my 'Religions of India,' namely, that there was no real trinity, but only an harmonious tolerance of the equal claims of the two great gods, into whose company Brahmâ was admitted simply as the greatest representative of a former pantheon, but never on an equal footing with the two rival divinities. I did not expect, however, to find this evidence so plainly carved in stone as it is at Ellóra.

The old town of Aurungabad, twenty miles beyond Ellóra, is interesting chiefly because it contains a second Taj Mahal, built in the same century as that at Agra. This mausoleum was erected as a tomb for the daughter of Aurangzib, and though it lacks the lovely inlaid work of its northern rival and has too low an entrance, the dignity and beauty of the Taj are here reproduced in a surprising degree—the same delicate carved marble windows with the subdued light falling upon the tomb, the same picturesque minarets, and the same long garden-walk with the well-known sheet of clear water from the outer gate to the front of the high platform on which rests the shrine.

As I bent over the tomb, the perfume of jessamine-flowers rose from below, and, looking down, I could see the offerings that are still made on the tomb of the venerable dead. There is something pathetic about this century-long mourning of the Mohammedans, and the simplicity of the daily "sacrifice of flowers." Something, too, of monastic peace and old-fashioned cultured leisure seems to linger between the outer gate and the shrine in the quiet walks of the garden and the shaded seats, where a few lads are repeating a lesson in the Koran at the feet of a venerable teacher. I dare say the jessamines would not be offered if some one did not pay for them, and doubtless the repose of the garden is more or less superficial, like the Mohammedan culture of to-day, but it is very pleasant to see; and if one blinks a little, it all seems very sweet and perfect, like a small earthly paradise, so that it does good to the spirit to gaze upon it and fancy it is just what it appears to be.

Eight miles from this old city stands one of the most curious survivals of mediæval India, a formerly impregnable fortress, which crowns the now deserted town of Daulatabad. The latter is one of the half-dozen deserted cities of India, but at present it is a mere jungle surrounded by the old wall. The fort itself, however, originally a Hindu invention, is perfectly preserved, only one gate being in ruins, and gives a very clear idea of the means of defence employed before the invention of gunpowder. It dates from the thirteenth century, and the chief strength of the citadel lies in the fact that to get to it a foe must not only storm two dozen well-made and strongly defended gateways, but in doing so he must force a passage up a pitch-dark tunnel hewn steeply in the solid rock; and when he has thus painfully fought his way to a height two hundred feet above the moat, where he first entered the rock, he runs against a trap-door of iron, sixteen feet square and covering the whole mouth of the tunnel. The turns and twists in the tunnel itself preclude the possibility of the enemy bringing in battering-rams; but this is not all, for the stone chamber above this iron door is a huge oven, and if the enemy ever got so far he would find the trap-door converted into a red-hot iron barrier, through which he could not force his way; but if he did, it would only be to enter into a fiery furnace.

The hill itself, in and on which the fort is built, is a most extraordinary natural phenomenon. It is quite circular, rising directly from the plain, with perpendicular sides from one hundred to two hundred feet high. Above this scarp the hilltop converges almost to a point, and then suddenly rises in a little dome five hundred feet above the moat. This dome alone would prove an obstacle difficult to surmount, as its sides are slippery rock. The tunnel stops with the top of the perpendicular scarp, and, though there is little need of further defence, the strong walls and gates continue to the very dome on the summit. The place is well worth a visit, as it is the best-preserved fortress of its time in India. The Mohammedans generally destroyed the forts both of the Hindus and of their own countrymen, but this they wisely preserved and strengthened with guns. Even gunpowder was useless against Daulatabad in the old days, for the upper fort-platforms are so made that no gun from the plain below could sweep them.

Some of these old guns, by the way, are curious weapons. The other day at Oodeypur I saw two cannon, said to be over two hundred years old, built on a revolver pattern; the barrel, worked by a crank, being brought opposite to each chamber in turn. The cannon on the tiptop of the Daulatabad fort, five hundred feet above the plain, is over twenty feet long, and how it was ever raised to its position is a mystery.

After spending three days on these relics of the past, I found I had exhausted my provisions, and so had to return to the base of supplies, preparatory to starting out again in another direction for Ajanta. There, despite the fascination of the mural decorations in other caves, the strongest impression was produced upon me by the insignificant and unfinished cavern which ends the series. There was a tiger—but enough! It suffices that I survive. I write not of beasts, but of man and art. And what wonderful art is exhibited in the wall-paintings of Ajanta! Even on the ceiling of the verandas the colors, veritable Pompeii reds and sky-blues, remain in all their ancient richness, and the patterns of flowers, traced in many designs, are as if painted yesterday. Within, on the chapel-walls, are represented, not conventional temple scenes, but historical subjects and personages, such as the Persian King Khusru II. receiving an embassy from the King of Ajanta; and hunting scenes, painted with the most minute care, in softly blended shades. In the historical cave, which is ascribed to the seventh century, there is the portrait of a Chinaman. There cannot be much question as to the person here represented by the artist, for Hiouen Thsang, the distinguished Chinese traveller, was in India in the seventh century, and the fact is doubtless recorded in this portrait of him. No ordinary Chinaman would have received the honor of being grouped with the Persian monarch.

The female figures in these pictures make a curious study. The faces are Madonna-like and saintly; the skin is fair, but many of the forms are half-nude. One's first thought is that Italian artists have left their mark here; but experts declare that the art of Ajanta is superior to that of Europe at this period. The explanation, I think, may be that native artists have here modelled their figures on pictures of Madonnas brought by missionaries, and artistically bettered their instruction. But it is a difficult problem to solve.

When I returned from the caves to the bungalow, four miles away, I found the place held by sepoys. The district officer told me that the dacoits had broken out again and that he was hunting them down. In this part of India the dacoits are chiefly Bhils, savage hill-men, and this year, in consequence of the famine, they are more outrageous and less prone to disguise themselves than usual. The night before they had killed three men and cut off sixteen noses in the next village to Ajanta. The dacoits' rule of warfare is thus simple. They cut off the heads of them that resist and the noses of them that do not, which insures them peace and leisure to rob when they enter a village, for even non-combatants run away rather than lose their noses. I was pleased to learn that the sepoys were to camp that night around the bungalow.

The next morning occurred an amusing incident, so typical of native notions of cleanliness that I cannot refrain from recounting the tale. As in the case of most bungalows, there was no pitcher, but one basin of fresh water was brought into the room the last thing at night for use in the morning. The official in charge of the bungalow brought in tea while I was dressing; and I, being a little late and wishing to rush things a bit, handed him my tumbler and told him to wash it and stow it away in the tiffin-basket as quick as he could. He simply ran across the room and rinsed the glass in the wash-hand basin. I had seen basins used as sinks, and knew that it was useless to comment on that; but the delay irritated me, and I said rather angrily: "What did you do that for? Didn't you know I wanted that water to wash in? Go and get some more." "*Khuda kasam*" (God is my witness), he exclaimed in deeply penitent tones, "I did not know. *I thought the Sâ'b had already washed.*"

E. Washburn Hopkins.

Correspondence.

FETTERING THE INTELLIGENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am a pedagogue in the town of Nephelococcygia. My salary is not large, but every year, with a laudable desire to improve the quality of my instruction, I invest a small portion of my earnings in books of reference, which are the indispensable tools of my profession. Unfortunately, these books are not all written by the Nephelococcygians, and even now I am longing to possess Baumeister's 'Denkmäler des Klassischen Altertums' and Marquardt and Mommsen's 'Handbuch der Römischen Alterthümer.' These works would be of the greatest assistance to me in my classes, but they are expensive, and, just as I am trying to screw my courage to the sticking-point, I hear that certain Goths and Vandals are proposing to increase their cost by levying blackmail to the extent of 25 per cent.

Now, if this is reputable business for a civilized government to be engaged in, then I

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have read my Herbert Spencer to no purpose. On the contrary, it would seem that such a government, if it cannot directly promote the cause of education, is at least in duty bound to interpose no obstacle.

Is there no help, or must we go on for ever laying for a time the spectre of anarchy, only to fall into the clutches of those who will rob us by due process of law? A. V.

March 24, 1897.

THE INSULT TO COMMON SENSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in the last number of the *Nation* (No. 1656) in regard to the repeal in the Dingley bill of that provision in the present tariff bill which allows a drawback on tin plate reëxported in the shape of cans and packages, is good as far as it goes, but it does not go far enough. You should have called the attention of your readers to the fact that the steel-makers of the United States are to-day exporting to Wales in large quantities what are known to the trade as "sheet bars," the raw material from which tin plate is manufactured. The American manufacturer of tin plate, who commands the cheapest raw materials in the world, is therefore to-day asking Congress for protection against the Welsh manufacturer who is using American sheet bars, and returning our own steel to us in the shape of tin plate. Surely such a demand is an insult to the intelligence and common sense of our legislators at Washington.

Yours, Steel-maker.

"THE FIRST ESSENTIAL OF PROSPERITY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Under the above heading Mr. John Brisben Walker has published an article in the March number of the *Cosmopolitan*—the magazine which he edits and which he is said to own. A great deal that he advocates is open to criticism, but the whole article is reasonable, compared with the footnote which appears on page 474. It reads as follows:

"The volume of the currency was reduced by legislation from about sixteen hundred millions in 1866 to seven hundred and twenty millions in 1873—a ruthless proceeding which even the most untrained mind should have recognized as certain to bring a panic. . . ."

I have been unable to find any evidence of this reduction in the volume of the currency. The official figures of the Treasury Department show that the total money in circulation in the United States was, in 1866, $673,488,244, and in 1873, $751,881,809. In addition, Mr. Muhleman's well-known book tells us that in the former year there was about a hundred and forty million dollars in the Treasury, while in the latter year the amount was about a hundred and twenty millions.

Was Mr. Walker's "ruthless proceeding" a reality? If so, where is the evidence of it? Nobody doubts the legal right of any man to publish anything he chooses in his own magazine; but when he is trying to instruct the uninitiated, ought he not, in justice to himself, to publish correct figures?

I am yours, etc., Lawrence Irwell.

Buffalo, N. Y., March 20, 1897.

[Your own figures are correct. Somebody has imposed upon Mr. Walker. His statistics may possibly be derived from 'Coin's Financial School,' but they can pretend to no higher authority. If he had troubled himself to look up the official figures, he would have learned that while the total amount of United States notes was reduced, between July 1, 1866, and July 1, 1873, by $44,780,306, the total amount of national banknotes was increased by $65,787,153. In other words, even our paper currency was increased during that period. The substitution of national banknotes for legal tenders, which was thus taking place, is exactly the process anticipated and promised by Secretary Chase in his annual report of 1863, by President Lincoln in his annual message of 1862, and by the authors of the Legal Tender Act in their public speeches and documents.—Ed. Nation.]

THE "SCARCITY OF MONEY" IN TEXAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have lately published a letter from G. S. Brown, touching on the "scarcity of money in the South," which thoroughly commends itself, in my judgment, to those of us who are familiar with that section of the Union known as "The South." I hear a great deal of talk about the scarcity of money, but in a pretty wide experience of travel through the South and West, I do not find any greater deficiency in the South than in the West, and the deficiency I find is not in money, but in collateral. This is the point, in connection with the State of Texas, to which I wish particularly to call attention.

There is a universal cry in Texas of the "scarcity of money." The politicians have harped upon it until the people themselves believe there is no money in Texas. As a matter of fact, I do not remember a time when there was more idle money in the banks seeking investment than can be found in Texas to-day. This is due, of course, to the depression in general business which has existed for the last five years, the discontinuance of railway building, and to the financial conditions (too familiar to us all to require that I should go into detail).

It has been accentuated to a remarkable degree in this State by the fact that we have absolutely no collateral; the Homestead law of the State of Texas has tied the hands of every poor man in the State. The natural conditions here are superior to those of any other portion of the South or West—the richest soil, the finest climate, and a growth in values which has been phenomenally rapid, made so by the general improvement of the uncultivated lands in the State during the last twenty years.

"In the last two decades the wealth of Texas has been increased by more than 200 per cent., as the result of the unaided efforts of the people, save and excepting railroad investments. The men who converted the grazing-grounds into farms, as a rule brought with them no assets but their energies. They began as tenants and gradually acquired homes out of the fruits of their industry applied to the fertile soil. The history of modern development is without another instance of as rapid progress in building up a new State without material assistance from the outside. That Texas has never had this, is conclusively proved by the fact that it is virtually free from debt. Considered as a business enterprise, it is the wealthiest corporation in the world, measuring financial strength by the proportion of assets to liabilities.

"The assessed valuation of all property in the State on January 1, 1895, was $860,910,569. Custom makes 60 per cent. of the market value of the property the basis of assessment. A conservative estimate of the true value of all private property in the State would rate it at $1,500,000,000. The aggregate of all State, county, and municipal indebtedness of Texas in 1890 was $20,172,063; of this sum virtually all of the State debt, and nearly all of the county debts, amounting to about one half of the whole, are owned by the permanent school fund of the State. The total of all public indebtedness does not exceed $25,000,000. The mortgages on Texas realty in 1890 amounted to $93,864,178, since decreased until it now stands at about $65,000,000. The recorded mortgages on personal property amount to $25,000,000 Altogether the recorded indebtedness of Texas, public and private, including every dollar owed by the State, county, municipality, and individual (excepting the obligations of railroads), is safely within $125,000,000. Against this there are assets amounting to $1,500,000,000."

The above figures were collated by Mr. E. G. Senter, a careful newspaper writer, and they are fairly accurate. In the face of this it is safe to say there is less collateral in Texas than in any other State in the Union, and it is due to the Homestead act. Mind you, I am not discussing whether the Homestead law of Texas is a good or bad law; I am merely endeavoring to point out to those who are eternally crying for more money, that what they lack is more collateral—that you cannot "eat your cake and keep your penny."

Of this $1,500,000,000 of actual values, ninety per cent. is land and the attachments thereto; and of this ninety per cent. it is safe to say that eighty per cent. *in value* is covered under the Homestead act of Texas. The farmer cannot borrow money on his farm unless he have more than 200 acres, that amount being absolutely exempt, no matter what its value, from any mortgage whatever; he may sell his farm, but he cannot mortgage it under any conditions, or for any amount. In the towns, the Homestead law not only exempts the dwelling, but the place of business, of the owner thereof, no matter what may be its actual value so that the ground did not cost more than $5,000 at the time when it was so designated as a homestead.

I have been, and am, an advocate of the Texas Homestead law (modified somewhat from its present conditions), but the results of such a homestead law universally applied has brought about a condition which I, at least, had not maturely considered. We have, for the reasons stated, practically no collateral in Texas which can now be used as a basis to secure money on which to inaugurate new enterprises. The clerk, mechanic, or middle-class merchant, who has a home varying in value from $1,000 to $25,000, finds in these hard times, when he is out of business, that he cannot even borrow money with which to keep up the taxes, much less to live upon. I have personal knowledge of a number of good people who are suffering for the necessaries of life, and wearing patched garments, while living in homes that are worth from $2,000 to $20,000. They do not wish to sell at this particular time, on account of the depression in real estate, which they believe to be temporary; and they cannot, by any possibility, execute any kind of a loan or mortgage which is valid. The banks have as much cash as they ever had at any previous time, but all these people, circumstanced as above, are crying out against the scarcity of money, and are, from the very facts as indicated, fair game for political demagogues and their wild theories.—Respectfully, J. T. Trezevant.

Dallas, Texas, March 19, 1897.

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THE DECAY OF THE PARTHENON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While everybody who has had the opportunity to examine the Parthenon within the last few years must agree with Prof. Sterrett in what he says about its perilous condition, and the imminent danger of its crumbling to pieces with the next earthquake unless thorough measures of reparation are completed before that occurs, still, I disagree with him in attributing this decay principally to the use of faulty blocks of marble in its construction. This I am able to do upon the authority of so eminent an expert in such matters as Sig. Giacomo Boni, the national inspector of monuments of the kingdom of Italy, who was my companion in Athens in 1894, and, while there, brought to his study of the Parthenon the experience and knowledge which have made his reports upon the condition of the ancient buildings of his own country of great value to his ministry.

It is true that there are schists in many of the blocks of the walls of the Parthenon, and doubtless Prof. Sterrett is quite right in stating that some of the present weakness of the structure is due to them. But the principal cause is the iron clamps with which all the blocks were joined together. So long as the walls were intact, and covered by the roof, these were inaccessible to moisture of any kind, but, once the protection was removed and some of the blocks were dislodged, however slightly, by the explosion of 1687 and the earthquakes and cannonadings they have since sustained, the way was open for the penetration of rain, dew, and frost. Immediately, of course, the clamps began to rust, and, in rusting, to swell. The result has been inevitable: slowly but surely they have burst the stone about them; and I believe it is almost, if not quite, literally true that there is not a block in the building in which one cannot trace one or more cracks radiating from the clamp inside to the outer surface, for the force of the swelling is such that not even the purest marble has resisted it, and one would probably be not far wrong in asserting that for this reason there is not a sound block in the building to-day. Nothing but cohesion holds the crumbling structure together, and the jar of an earthquake, or—are we to look forward to this possibility once more?—the shell of a hostile gun, might send the building into splinters in an instant. As Signor Boni explained to me, nothing but the most thoroughly waterproof treatment of every block can arrest this decay; the surface of the walls, both on top and on the sides, must be rendered impregnable to moisture, *and every crack plugged*.

Signor Boni having pointed out these facts, and the prophecies to be deduced from them, before the earthquakes of that spring, you can imagine the eagerness with which I hurried to examine the result of the first shocks, he having already left Athens. Half a dozen or more large pieces had dropped out precisely as he had prophesied they would, and, in many places which we had examined together, fragments had been shaken out of their previous adjustment, often slightly, it is true, but the fact itself was sufficient to show the danger the whole structure was in.

To return to Prof. Sterrett's statement, I only wish to add that in the fallen fragments I examined at that time the break was always a clean white one, showing that it was not due to schist, and one of the principal pieces fell out of one of the columns, in which, as he says, no schistous strata have been found. Consequently, his charge that the present ruinous condition of the building is due ultimately "to the employment in its construction of poor marble for interior and inside stones," seems to me undeserved, although in any case it is a pretty fine question to determine how much blame should be attached to builders for the selection of their materials, when their work successfully withstood all the elements which nature brought to bear upon it for over two thousand one hundred years, and then was ruined by the hand of man.

Respectfully yours, Edward Robinson.

Boston, March 26, 1897.

SLAVIC STUDIES IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the discussion in the last *Nation* based on Dr. Leo Wiener's article on Slavic Languages, in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March, it would be an injustice not to mention the work of Dr. Hermann Schoenfeld, in the Columbian University in this city. As much as three years ago, Dr. Schoenfeld organized classes in the Polish language and literature, which were well attended. A similar course in Bohemian has been offered, while courses in Russian have been actually given in the same institution by Dr. Peter Fireman, a native Russian. Dr. Schoenfeld has published 'The Partition of Poland' (New York, 1891), which has been translated three times into Polish, numerous articles in 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia' on Slavic literary and historical subjects, several extensive essays on Slavic subjects in the Illinois *Staats-Zeitung*, a history of Higher Education in Russian, Austrian, and Prussian Poland in the last Report of the United States Commissioner of Education. All of this work has been based to a large extent on original sources.—Yours truly,

C. Meriwether.

325 East Capitol Street,
Washington, D. C., March 24, 1897.

THE *WORLD* BOYCOTT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Not for the credit of priority, but to show the working of the leaven in the lump, even near the edge of the crust, I want to say that I dropped the New York *World* from the list of periodicals taken by this library last November. The other "offence" has never been on the list.

Librarian Seattle Public Library.

Seattle, Wash., March 18, 1897.

Notes.

The 'Life of Abby Hopper Gibbons,' told, chiefly through her correspondence, by her daughter, Sarah Hopper Emerson, with illustrations; 'The Life and Correspondence of Charles Carroll of Carrollton,' by Kate Mason Rowland; 'Nippur; or, Explorations and Adventures on the Euphrates,' by the Rev. Dr. John Punnett Peters, in two octavo volumes, fully illustrated; Pellissier's 'Literary Movement in France during the 19th Century,' translated by Anne G. Brinton; 'The Religions of Primitive Peoples,' by Dr. Daniel G. Brinton; 'Thought and Life among the Ancient Hebrews,' by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne; 'Studies in Psychical Research,' by Frank Podmore, A. M.; 'The Revolutionary Tendencies of the Age: their Cause and their Ultimate Aim'; 'Chronicles of a Kentucky Settlement,' by William Courtenay Watts; 'Sketches Awheel in Modern Iberia,' by Fanny Bullock Workman and William Hunter Workman, with map and illustrations; a seventh edition, rewritten, of 'Authors and Publishers: A Manual of Suggestions for Beginners in Literature'; and a third edition, revised and enlarged, of Bernhard Berenson's 'Venetian Painters of the Renaissance,' are in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The same firm has arranged with the City of New York to print a limited edition of the 'Records of the City of New Amsterdam,' in six volumes of text and one of index, under the editorial supervision of Mr. Berthold Fernow. The Records embrace both periods of Dutch control of the municipality, viz., 1653–1664 and 1673–74. Their genealogical value is very great, for both Dutch and English. A certain number of copies will be for sale at the nominal subscription price of $10.50 for the set.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will shortly issue the 'Life and Letters of Benjamin Jowett,' by Evelyn Abbott, LL.D., and Lewis Campbell, LL.D.

Macmillan Co. announce 'The Social Teachings of Jesus: An Essay in Christian Sociology'; 'In the Tideway,' a Scotch story by Mrs. Steel; and 'The Myths of Israel,' an analysis of the book of Genesis as to its composition, by Amos K. Fiske.

Dean Farrar's 'Men I have Known,' in England and America, will be published in this country by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

The Continental Publishing Co. are about to bring out 'Tales of the Sun-Land' [the "Sad Southwest"], by Verner Z. Reed, and a metrical translation of Vondel's tragedy of "Lucifer," by Leonard Charles van Noppen, with illustrations by the Dutch artist, John Aarts.

The Jewish Publication Society of America promises 'In the Pale: Stories and Legends of the Russian Jews,' by the Rev. Henry Iliowizi.

The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, has nearly ready 'The Street Railway System of Philadelphia: its History and Present Condition,' by Prof. Frederic W. Spiers, of the Drexel Institute.

The collected Poems of the Rev. Dominic Brennan, C.P., are announced by the Peter Paul Book Co. of Buffalo.

We read in the *Athenæum* that Chatto & Windus, London, are to issue soon, in two volumes, the work of the late Gen. Meredith Read entitled 'Historical Studies in Vaud, Berne, and Savoy, from Roman Times to Voltaire, Rousseau, and Gibbon.' It will contain (together with a memoir of the author, his portrait and other illustrations) many unpublished letters of distinguished personages.

Few more welcome visitors do we greet than the quinquennial 'American Catalogue,' and that for 1890–1895 has just been issued from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*. Mr. Bowker draws attention, in his preface, to the fact that another lustrum will round out the century for the Catalogue, whose first volume included all American works in print in 1876. It is possible that this period may see the completion of an enterprise now in hand by the *Publishers' Weekly*, viz., the cataloguing from such sources as are available of all books published in this country in the early part of the century and not in print in 1876. This would be a truly poetic achievement. Mr. Bowker's enumeration of his colaborers shows the pre-

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dominant part played by women in preparing this Catalogue.

'The History of Mt. Mica,' by A. C. Hamlin (published by the author), gives a careful account of the discovery and product of this interesting mineral locality, near Paris, Maine, notable for the occurrence of tourmalines in great abundance, of many colors, and of quality suitable for gems. Numerous colored plates exhibit the variety of tint and form of the finer crystals, many of which are now, through the zeal of Mr. Hamlin and the generosity of Mr. J. A. Garland of New York, preserved in the mineralogical cabinet of Harvard University.

Mayer & Müller, Berlin, send us a useful little guide to the institutions for the higher education in that capital, compiled by Wilhelm Spielmann from official sources ('Handbuch. der Anstalten und Einrichtungen zur Pflege von Wissenschaft und Kunst'). It opens with a directory of Imperial and State authorities, from the Foreign Office (with its relations to archæology, African scientific exploration, German schools abroad, etc.) to the General Staff of the Army (cartography). The Royal Academies of Science and of Art, the University, the high schools, independent scientific institutes, collections in science and art, archives and libraries, associations, examination committees, etc., complete the work when we have mentioned an appendix giving the personnel of the University and the high schools, and an index.

'The Magazine and the Drama: An Index Compiled by James Harry Pence,' a pamphlet of 190 pages issued in a limited edition by the Dunlap Society, is a most useful volume of reference for the subject treated. From Poole and Fletcher a large amount of material has been drawn, which has been reinforced by the compiler's own work, and thus an author and subject key has been supplied to more than one hundred and seventy periodicals. Mr. Pence has done his work well, and will, it is hoped, find many imitators in other ranges of literature. It is regrettable that so valuable a little manual should be limited in possession to the members of the club, as it ought to be in all public libraries.

The sumptuously illustrated catalogue of Edmond de Goncourt's collection of Japanese, Corean, and Chinese works of art constitutes a quarto volume of more than 400 pages, the last 50 pages being devoted to a list of signatures of artists found on the various pieces of china, lacquer, bronze, iron, and ivory. A considerable number of paintings, sketches, and Oriental books, along with a large number of works in black and white, and a collection of miscellaneous articles of Oriental furniture and the like, make up the rest of this interesting collection, which bears, as a whole, and in all its parts, the mark of its collector's individual taste. The care devoted to cataloguing and describing it, the beautifully executed heliogravure plates, eight in number (by Dujardin), the excellent photograph of Edmond de Goncourt, which does duty as frontispiece, and the woodcut of him and his brother on its title-page, serve to prepare us for the personal note that we find in the following extract from De Goncourt's will prefixed in facsimile to the catalogue: "It is my wish that my drawings, engravings, knick-knacks, books, and in general all the objects of art which have made my life a happy one, should be saved from burial in a shivering museum, and from the idiotic stare of casual and indifferent passers-by. I require them all to be scattered under the auctioneer's hammer, so that the enjoyment which the acquisition of each one of them has given me, may once more be given by each one of them to some inheritor of my tastes."

In accordance with the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels, Dr. Tullio Rossi Doria will publish at Rome a *Repertorio Periodico* of medical publications in Italy, using the Dewey system of decimal classification.

The best thing about the well-printed *Publications* of the Southern History Association (Vol. I., No. 1, Washington) is that it is a beginning. Appetite comes with eating, and the new medium will not fail to draw to itself matter of permanent worth. This quality appertains already to Dr. Stephen B. Weeks's survey of what has been done and is doing towards the promotion of historical studies in the South, from which we learn that Georgia alone has done nothing to put her colonial history into shape; that no State has published its census records for 1790; and that, of the 22 historical societies reported, only 6 have libraries, viz., Maryland (30,000 vols.), Virginia (13,000), Georgia (two, 12,000 and 20,000), West Virginia (21,500), Missouri (5,000). To be mentioned also is Mr. Theodore L. Cole's Bibliography of the Statute Law of the Southern States, Part i., Alabama. The number contains a report of the proceedings at the formation of the Society, and several of the papers read at the first meeting. The subscription price is 75 cents.

The rather thin March number of the *Geographical Journal* contains, besides an account, with several portraits, of the Nansen meeting in London, a continuation of Messrs. Munro and Anthony's narrative of their explorations in Mysia. This is followed by a paper by Mr. V. Cornish on the formation of sand-dunes, profusely illustrated, to which is added a report of an unusually interesting discussion of the subject by distinguished members of the Geographical Society. A timely sketch of Abyssinia, considering the important British mission now on its way to that country, emphasizes the national feeling of the inhabitants. Though they are divided into separate races with distinct languages, yet the invariable answer to the question to what nation does a man belong is, "I am an Abyssinian"; and further inquiry is needed to bring out the fact that he "belongs to the Amharans, the Agau, or whatever it may be." Attention is also called to the fact that the emigrants from South Arabia who brought with them their writing and language to Africa, were "a company of Sabæan merchants that aimed at the commercial exploitation of East Africa. The British East India Company and the modern Chartered Company of South Africa had their prototype one thousand years before Christ in the Sabæan African Company. It bore the name *habasat* (*i. e.*, association or company), the same from which the modern appellation Abyssinia is derived."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* opens with an account of the Western Sahara, and especially the region about Cape Juby. This is followed by a description of the Balfour Shoal in the Southern Pacific and its deposits, by Dr. John Murray. In a review of Nansen's book, Prof. Geikie says that "if the discovery of a deep Polar sea does not call for any modification of geological opinion as to a former connection of northwest Europe and southeast Greenland, and if it leaves the accepted results of glacial investigation just where they were, nevertheless it furnishes much food for thought both to geologists and biologists." There is also a report of his and Dr. Murray's addresses at the Nansen Edinburgh banquet.

We some time ago announced the intention of the Berlin Photographic Company (New York, 14 East Twenty-third Street) to issue photogravures, on a generous scale, of the masterpieces of the Museo del Prado at Madrid. We have just received from them a sample plate of the 110 embraced in the scheme, and it is no less a worthy than Velasquez's "Surrender of Breda," familiarly known also, from a prominent feature in the beautiful composition, as "The Lances." In size it approximates pretty closely the average (14x19) of the series, and is an admirable memorandum of the work in question, short of the color, for which we must yet await the progress of invention. Velasquez's canvases enter into each of the ten parts or groups into which the subscription work is divided, and number thirty-nine in all, but the great Italian painters, the Dutch and Flemish and German, are likewise much in evidence. The subscription price is $360, and publication will proceed throughout the current year. The entire collection will be a treasure.

Mr. Jacques Reich's ambitious etching of Daniel Webster (New York: Charles Barmore, 111 Fifth Avenue) is all but life-size, and follows a Boston daguerreotype of about 1845—Webster before the fall, therefore. In this particular lies its main value, for the artist has treated his subject externally, and the face lacks spirit and vitality. There was, perhaps, none too much of this in the Webster of that date, who was *privily* aiding the Conscience Whigs of Massachusetts to fend off the annexation of Texas; and the head in its true proportions is always impressive.

The Amherst (Mass.) Summer School of Library Economy will reopen on July 5 for a term of six weeks. There are no special requirements for admission beyond a reasonably thorough education and book aptitude. Full information may be had by addressing Mr. William I. Fletcher, at the Library of Amherst College.

Three fellowships, of $600, $600, and $500 respectively, are offered by the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome for the year 1897-98, as we have already announced. Blank forms of application, with particulars, may be had of Prof. C. L. Smith, No. 64 Sparks Street, Cambridge, chairman of that committee, returnable up to May 1, 1897, but no later. After the present year, all such appointments will be made upon examination.

The landscape-gardener's art in this country has suffered a serious loss by the untimely death last week of Mr. Charles Eliot, of the firm of Olmsted, Olmsted & Eliot of Brookline, Mass, the eldest son of President Eliot of Harvard University. He had a conspicuous part in the determination of the magnificent scheme of parks for the Metropolitan District of Boston now being rapidly developed, and this will be his greatest though not his sole monument. Mr. Eliot was a frequent and willing contributor to the *Nation*, as a reviewer of works relating to his specialty.

We notice with regret the death on March 11 of that veteran lexicographer, Prof. Dr. Daniel Sanders, at Strelitz, in the seventy-seventh year of his age. His chief labors have been in connection with his native tongue, beginning with his great quarto 'Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache' (1859-1865), to be succeeded by an extraordinary number of

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complementary dictionaries; but he began author with a work on the 'Folk-Life of the Modern Greeks' (1844), and in 1881 he returned to this people in his 'Modern Greek Grammar,' in 1884 with his 'History of Modern Greek Literature' (in connection with A. R. Rangabé). He passes away at a political crisis when all these works, except, perhaps, the first, have renewed claims to popularity.

Our recent Note (p. 204 of No. 1655) on the newly discovered Hebrew text of Ecclesiasticus was disfigured by the error of reading "Ecclesiastes."

—The second volume of the 'Statutes at Large of Pennsylvania from 1682 to 1801,' compiled by James T. Mitchell and Henry Flanders, Commissioners, is the initial result of a work begun so long ago as 1883 (though not authorized by the State until some years later). It covers the years 1700-1712. The publication of the matter which will constitute the first of the series (the laws and illustrative documents prior to 1700) is deferred in the hope of obtaining additional material. In this work of gathering what Gibbons terms "the most instructive portion" of a state's history, Pennsylvania has followed the previous examples of Virginia, South Carolina, and Massachusetts; but the present compilation, thanks to the scholarship and industry of its true editor, Mr. Charles R. Hildeburn, has been carried far beyond these earlier works in completeness. Not merely are the laws printed *in extenso* from the original manuscripts (saving only where lost or mutilated, in which cases they are reprinted from the Act books), thus bringing to light more than one hundred laws which by carelessness had never before been printed; but also the old texts are corrected to such an extent as to make this the first authentic printing of the larger part of the early laws of Pennsylvania. Nor is this reconstruction of text by any means the most valuable part of the work, for attached to each law is what might be called its biography, and, where it was superseded by subsequent laws, its genealogy. Take for an example the law relating to fences: we are referred to the successive laws passed in 1705, 1721, 1729, 1763, 1782, 1784, 1800, 1805, and to thirty more successive acts. In addition, more than a hundred pages of the present volume are devoted to documents relating directly to Pennsylvania laws, being the Orders in Council, Extracts from the Board of Trade Journal, Opinions of the Royal Attorney-General, and other papers by which alone a true understanding of the laws can be reached. The importance of this is proved by the fact that, of the first ninety-four acts codified in 1700 and adopted by the Assembly *en bloc*, fifty-three were repealed by the Queen in Council in 1705; and it is further noted of several laws that they were never submitted to the Crown. The index is admirably full.

—Toronto has the credit of being the first Canadian university to undertake the publication of historical studies. The opening number of the series is a "Review of Historical Publications relating to Canada" for 1896 (and in part 1895). The editor, Prof. Wrong, and his staff of contributors seek to gauge the value of the heterogeneous works which crowd upon the market every twelvemonth, steering a just course between "the acerbity of a *Saturday Review* article and conventional newspaper eulogy." We fear we may be suspected of the latter vice when we dismiss with undiscriminating praise the instalment now before us. We shall, however, do our duty undismayed by fear of such censure. The reviewers enlisted are numerous, and include some of the best Canadian antiquaries and historians; for instance, Sir James Le Moine, Hon. David Mills, Dr. Bourinot, Dr. Stewart, the Abbé Casgrain, and Prof. Shortt, besides the editor himself. A glance at the table of contents shows that 1895 and 1896 have been years unusually fertile in the production of important books relating to Canada. Lorin's 'Frontenac,' Thwaites's 'Jesuit Relations,' Rochemonteix's 'Les Jésuites et la Nouvelle-France,' the eighth volume of Kingsford's 'History of Canada,' Casgrain's edition of the 'Levis Papers,' and Coffin's 'The Province of Quebec and the Early American Revolution' are a striking half-dozen monuments of sound scholarship. One satisfactory feature of the year's harvest is that the French of Europe are showing a disposition to aid Canadians in opening up the history of New France. The most spirited writing of this sort is Kerallain's 'La Jeunesse de Bougainville.' We trust that 1897 may be productive of material to furnish forth another equally successful Review of this sort, and that the same standard of careful examination will be maintained.

—In the fourth volume of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Bros.), Biard's narrative of 1616 is concluded and the action is shifted to Quebec. Despite the more heroic undertakings which proceeded from Notre Dame des Anges, we take leave of Port Royal with regret. The charm of novelty clings about the earlier mission, investing alike De Poutrincourt, the fathers, and the converts. We shall search in vain for another Membertou, innocent cause of the delusion that many sagamores would bring their tribes to see the truth. Biard's last chapters describe his experiences after capture by the English, when, taken to Virginia, he and Quentin nearly lost their lives. His subsequent captivity and return to France by way of England once dismissed, he reverts *con amore* to a final recital of French obligations to prosecute colonies in New France and to convert the natives. His ultimate appeal may be taken either as the epitaph of Port Royal or as the prophecy of St. Ignace. Mr. Thwaites interjects no comment between the end of the Acadian mission and the beginning of the Laurentian. Whereas Biard sums up in a Relation, Lalemant at the outset of his work furnishes us with letters only. Four of the five here printed were written at Quebec in 1625 and 1626. It took but a short time to make a correct diagnosis of the vast difficulties presented by the new task. In the same letter which describes the dedication of the first Jesuit Church at Quebec, Lalemant says of the savages: "Leur conversion ne nous donnerons pas peu d'affaire. Leur vie libertine et faineante, leur esprit grossier, et qui ne peut guere comprendre, la disette des mots qu'ils ont pour expliquer nos mysteres, n'ayans jamais eu aucun culte divin, nous exercera à bon escient." Yet he immediately safeguards himself from a possible charge of cowardice: "Mais pourtant nous ne perdons pas courage graces à Dieu." The fifth letter referred to is dated 1629, and describes a shipwreck on the Canso Islands. Lalemant gives a vivid picture of the ship's breaking up, and of how he and his companion, Noyrot, clinging to spars, raised their voices in the *Salve Regina* and the *In manus tuas Domine*. A welcome feature of the present volume is a photo-engraving of Jean de Brébeuf, reproduced from McNab's oil portrait. Surely that martyr earned his claim to such conspicuous recognition!

—It is not often that we are called upon to notice a book by an author of the tender age of six, but such is the number of years that have been counted by Myra Bradwell Helmer, who has written a tiny volume of 'Short Stories' (Chicago Legal News Co.). The stories are very pretty, and they will very likely appeal to youthful readers more deeply than many attempts made to amuse them by older writers. They were "talked" by the little girl, and written down by her mother just as they came from her lips. They are not wanting in moral and scientific instruction, as the following extracts will show:

"Ruby was a beauty—small blue eyes and yellow curls down to her waist. She was the piousest lady among the fairies. Ruby's sister was named Tulip. She was not so pretty as Ruby, because her hair was brown and her eyes were black, but still she was pretty. Tulip was next to her sister in goodness. Ruby was never seen to frown, nor Tulip either. When Ruby was dressed in her wedding clothes she looked very sweet. Her eyes were glowing with blueness and were shining brightly."

"When the fairy doctor came, he said one had got scarlet fever, the other diphtheria, and the other typhoid fever. He told the fairy godmother all about microbes and germs, and told her to boil the water. The fairy godmother said she did not understand: if the germ had the fever, why didn't the fever, which killed little boys and girls, kill the germ? And if the germ didn't have the fever, how could it give the fever; how could a thing give a thing it didn't have? The fairy doctor said: 'Nobody knows but God.'"

The price of this little book is twenty-five cents, and the proceeds are to go to the orphans and the sick babies. It is already in the third edition.

—Those who are familiar with Clarac's monumental 'Musée de Sculpture' will look with some amazement upon the announcement that a pocket edition of the work has just appeared. Such is, in fact as well as in name, the first volume of M. Salomon Reinach's 'Répertoire de la Statuaire grecque et romaine' (Paris: E. Leroux), to which he has given the sub-title "Clarac de poche," a book of about the bulk of Zola's 'Rome,' and sold at the modest price of five francs. It does not include the text, the attempt to compress which into reasonable proportions would have been alike impracticable and useless, as no one consults Clarac for the text nowadays. Instead of this, M. Reinach has given us two things that have been much more needed—one, a complete and well-arranged index, which the original lacks; the other, a brief but carefully considered list of the more important modern publications of the works illustrated, including photographs where they are to be had, and also such useful scraps of information as "disparu," "moderne," "le bas seul antique," etc., this list being compressed, by a system of abbreviation, into twenty pages. Of the plates, M. Reinach has omitted Nos. 1-110, as these are simply illustrations of the Louvre and its decorations, and also the last or iconographic section (pls. 1001-1136), for the reason that the small scale of the reduction would render this practically useless. The 890 plates which remain are the vital part of Clarac's work, and these are as useful now as ever—not for studying the modelling or the fine qualities of the sculptures, but for the comparison and identification of both types and single figures by such characteristics as the attitude, the arrangement of hair or drapery, and the like. In spite of the size of the

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reductions, details are clearly defined; and both editor and publisher are to be thanked as well as congratulated for having thus preserved all that is most useful in Clarac's 'Musée' and placed it within reach of all students of ancient art. The second volume of this 'Répertoire,' which is promised at an early date, will be of exceptional interest, as it is to consist of outline drawings of six thousand Greek and Roman statues brought together by M. Reinach and edited by him, with a complete index. This volume will be uniform in style and price with the present one.

—The "Musée Social" of Paris, an institution founded by a wealthy French nobleman and directed by an independent committee of distinguished French scholars and men of affairs, "has for its purpose to put gratuitously at the disposal of the public information concerning all such organizations as have for their object and for their result the improvement of the material condition of the laboring classes." The character of its work has recently been brought to the notice of Americans by the mission of M. Paul de Rousiers and his colleagues, and recommended to their respect by the very substantial and instructive work of M. Paul de Rousiers himself on 'The Labor Question in Britain.' It may not be amiss to call the attention of American economists and politicians to the exceedingly interesting "circulars" which the Musée issues every month. These contain reports on a wide range of subjects, many of them, of course, suggested by current French legislation or industrial experience. But many are of general interest. Whenever there is a big Socialist or trades-union congress in Europe, the Musée sends an observer, who describes not only the formal discussions, but also the personalities and the environment, with a "detachment" and a liveliness which make his report very entertaining reading. The Musée Social cannot, perhaps, scatter these circulars broadcast outside France; but every considerable library ought to have a set of them, and the Musée is particularly glad to "exchange" them for other economic publications of every kind. The address of the Director is 5 Rue Las-Cases, Paris.

—A remarkable object-lesson in good government is given in Lord Cromer's report on the administration of Egypt for 1896. With admirable lucidity he deals with a great variety of topics, the most interesting being those directly relating to the condition of the fellah. This shows a continued material, intellectual, and moral improvement. By scientific methods of irrigation his land has been made more productive, and roads are being built and a system of light railways introduced by which he can transport his grain, sugar, and cotton easily and quickly to a market. Instead of the 200,000 men but recently called out annually for a hundred days of unpaid forced labor, but 25,000 are needed to watch the river-banks during the high water. The sanitary measures applied to the cities are being extended to towns and villages. Successful efforts have been made, through Government loans to small cultivators, to reduce the rate of interest charged them by the usurious village money-lender. The standard of the schools and colleges is continually being raised, and by the strict and impartial administration of justice not only is serious crime diminishing, but it "is year by year becoming more unpopular in Egypt." More striking still is the financial exhibit. In the first four years of the English occupation, 1882-1886, the annual deficit was nearly three and a half million dollars. In 1896 the surplus, after paying four and a quarter millions of debt, which at that rate will be wiped out in forty-four years, was a million and a half. The interest charge upon the debt, which the expenses of conversion and earlier deficits had increased by seventeen millions, has nevertheless diminished by two millions in fourteen years. In closing, Lord Cromer says that in the work of reform and good government he has had the hearty coöperation of the superior officials, whether European or Egyptian.

HOW TO FIGURE THE EXTINCTION OF A RACE.

Race Traits and Tendencies of the American Negro. By Frederick L. Hoffman, F. S. S. Published for the American Economic Association by The Macmillan Co., New York. 1896.

MR. HOFFMAN has prepared with great patience, energy, and zeal an elaborate brief in support of the proposition that the American negro, like the New Zealand Maori, is doomed to extinction. Much of his book, however, is of interest apart from any bearing it may have on the main argument. He has collected statistics relating to the moral, mental, physical, and material condition of the negro. If the accuracy of these figures shall stand the test of criticism and investigation, portions of the book will remain useful for purposes of reference. But if the negro in this country does not die out as Mr. Hoffman believes he will, the work as a whole will go its way along with the already almost forgotten articles which, a few years ago, demonstrated to the satisfaction of their authors that the negroes were increasing so rapidly that their ultimate and speedy preponderance in every Southern State was a melancholy certainty.

According to Mr. Hoffman, the abolition of slavery wrought the undoing of the American negro. In the chapter in which he sums up the conclusions to be drawn from his three hundred pages of statistical study, he says (pp. 311-312):

"Nothing is more clearly shown from this investigation than that the Southern black man at the time of emancipation was healthy in body and cheerful in mind. He neither suffered inordinately from disease nor from impaired bodily vigor. His industrial capacities as a laborer were not of a low order, nor was the condition of servitude such as to produce in him morbid conditions favorable to mental disease, suicide, or intemperance. What are the conditions thirty years after? The pages of this work give but one answer—an answer which is a most severe condemnation of modern attempts of superior races to lift inferior races to their own elevated position; an answer so full of meaning that it would seem criminal indifference on the part of a civilized people to ignore it. In the plain language of the facts brought together, the colored race is shown to be on the downward grade, tending towards a condition in which matters will be worse than they are now, when disease will be more destructive, vital resistance still lower, when the number of births will fall below the deaths, and gradual extinction of the race take place."

And in the last sentence of his book he declares (p. 329): "Unless a change takes place, a change that will strike at the fundamental errors that underlie the conduct of the higher races towards the lower, gradual extinction is only a question of time."

Mr. Hoffman of course does not deny that the negro in this country increased 13.5 per cent. during the decade ending in 1890. This rate of natural increase is fairly high. That of the American white was 14.6 per cent., while in Germany the rate was 12 2 per cent., in England 14 per cent., and in France less than 1.5 per cent. Nor does Mr. Hoffman look forward to an immediate decrease. He anticipates that by 1900 the colored inhabitants of the country will number nearly eight and a half millions, or a million more than in 1890. His argument in brief is, that the negroes are rushing into the cities in great numbers, that among urban negroes the death rate is greater than the birth rate, and that before long the losses thereby occasioned will overbalance any possible natural increase among those portions of the race which may still remain in the country districts.

The statistics upon which he relies to support his position he has been in large part compelled to collect himself from many and widely scattered sources. It follows that no one who has not made an independent examination as extensive and laborious as that of Mr. Hoffman himself can possibly tell whether many of the figures printed by the latter are typical or not, and whether he has given all the statistics he succeeded in gathering, as well those which bore against as those which supported the points he wished to make. It is consequently impossible to ignore the evidence, presented by many passages in the book itself, that the author, in spite of his assumption in his preface to the contrary, wrote with a strong bias against the negro. Space forbids us to do more in this connection than to refer the reader to his discussion of the negro as a taxpayer (pp. 300–309). He denounces the negro race for "shirking its duty towards the state," although the statistics he gives show that in Virginia, the State from whose returns he obtains his evidence that the negro is an "unscrupulous tax-dodger," the negro, who owns 3.1 per cent. (p. 298) of the property, actually pays 6.2 per cent. of the taxes (p. 300). That the white man, through the operation of a poll-tax or otherwise, contrives to make the negro pay in proportion to his means two dollars for his one, will convince most persons that, however much the negroes "are wanting in that sense of public morality which demands that a man shall pay the taxes which his income, property, or political privileges impose upon him," their unwillingness to yield up more than they do is not altogether unnatural.

The accuracy and fairness of some parts of Mr. Hoffman's work can be readily tested, and it is evident that more care could have profitably been exercised in its preparation. We do not refer to such obvious typographical slips as that (p. 19) where he is made to say that "Even in counties where the negroes outnumber the whites fifty to one, the principal offices of the county are in the hands of the latter." There are, of course, no such counties in the United States. What he wrote or intended to write must have been *fifteen* to one. Even then the remark was a loose one, for Issaquena County, Mississippi, is the only one in which the negroes constitute as much as fifteen-sixteenths of the population. Of more significance is the curiously misleading character of the tables on pages 20 and 21. Mr. Hoffman has deemed it of "sufficient importance to abstract from the census returns a table for the principal Southern States, showing the concentration of the colored population in certain counties which at the same time contain but a very small proportion of whites." This table gives the white and co-

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lored population in 1890 of sixty-nine counties, and for each of them is figured out the number of negroes to every one thousand whites. These proportions vary from 1,676 to the 1,000 in Marshall County, Miss., to 14,183 to the 1,000 in Madison Parish, La. Upon what principle this table was compiled it is not possible to discover. Apparently the author intended to include those counties in which the negroes were at least approximately twice as numerous as the whites, yet he has omitted forty-five in each of which in 1890 the whites constituted less than a third of the population. Among those left out is Issaquena, Miss., in which the negro preponderance, as we have seen, is relatively heavier than it is in any other county in the United States. The omissions are most capriciously made; thus, in Alabama, eleven out of the twelve counties in which there are at least two negroes for every white man are given, and in South Carolina fifteen out of sixteen appear in the table. On the other hand, in Georgia thirteen out of twenty-four are omitted, and in Mississippi ten out of twenty-five. It is true that the imperfections in this table have no bearing one way or the other upon the author's argument. It is because they do not that we have felt it to be only fair to him to call attention to them, inasmuch as the lack of care displayed in the preparation of this table tends to exonerate him from a much graver criticism which, as we shall presently see, might otherwise be made upon the book.

The basis of his case is, that the negroes are crowding into the cities to die off. The negro population of the cities has, of course, increased greatly. So has the white population of the cities of all civilized countries. Mr. Hoffman asserts, however, that the movement to the cities upon the part of the negroes is abnormally great, and is one of the distinctive "traits and tendencies" of the race. While slavery existed, the negro population of even the Southern cities was relatively small. The negroes were mostly slaves, and, speaking generally, slave labor was profitable only when employed in agriculture or in domestic service. The slaves were therefore kept mostly upon the plantation. When freedom came, the desire upon the part of many of them to see something of the world was natural. The only way in which they could gratify this wish was to go to some city or town. The figures given by Mr. Hoffman show that they did so in great numbers. He gives the total and the negro population of sixteen Southern cities in 1860 and in 1890. In them the negroes constituted in 1860 18.85 per cent. of the population, and in 1890 29.08 per cent. Mr. Hoffman does not show when the greater part of this excessive movement of the negroes to these cities took place. It is very essential to the force of his argument that he should show it. If it is a thing of twenty-five or thirty years ago, and has since for the most part ceased, it is of very little importance. If it is still going on as rapidly as ever—much more, if it is increasing in speed and volume—a main part of the author's contention has been made good. He appreciates this fact, and he says (p. 12), "During the last decade this migratory tendency of the colored population has been more pronounced than ever, affecting not only the large cities, but also those of proportionally small colored population."

We shall consider the cities of "proportionally small colored population" presently. How was it in the sixteen cities he selected as sufficiently representative to make the comparison between 1860 and 1890 a fair one? By constructing for them tables for 1870 and 1880 similar to those given by Mr. Hoffman for 1860 and 1890, it will be found that the percentage of negroes to the entire population, which, as before stated, was 18.85 in 1860, had by 1870 risen to 27.74, an increase of 8.89. Between 1870 and 1880 another gain of .81 of 1 per cent. was made, while between 1880 and 1890 the percentage rose from 28.55 to 29.08, or but .53 of 1 per cent. In these cities, at least, "the migratory tendency of the colored population" "during the last decade" has *not* been "more pronounced than ever." Nearly seven-eighths of the entire increase in the proportion of negroes to whites in these cities, upon which increase Mr. Hoffman lays so much stress, took place prior to 1870, and barely more than one-twentieth of it between 1880 and 1890. In these places the movement had long ago spent its force and has now almost entirely stopped.

Has it, as Mr. Hoffman says, in the last decade been "more pronounced than ever in the cities of proportionally smaller colored population"? There were in 1880 thirty-five cities in the country each of which had upwards of five thousand colored inhabitants. All the cities used by the author to show the greater rate of increase of the colored than of the white urban population are included among these thirty-five except Birmingham, Ala., which in 1880 was not separately returned. We have followed Mr. Hoffman's example and included the population of Birmingham in 1890 in the figures below, because to include it makes the difference between what he says the census returns show, and what those returns in fact do show, less than it otherwise would be.

The white and colored population in 1880 and in 1890 of Birmingham and of all cities having in 1880 over five thousand colored population was:

	White.	Colored.
1890	7,048,939	746,764
1880	5,079,486	553,494
Increase	1,969,453	193,270
Increase per cent.	38.77	34.92

How, then, does Mr. Hoffman persuade himself or his readers that the negro population of the cities is increasing more rapidly than the white? Unfortunately, the story is a long one. It is necessary to tell it, however, if we are to understand with how much reservation some of the fundamental assertions of this book must be taken. In the first place, by confining his comparisons to the cities which in 1890 had at least ten thousand negro inhabitants, he includes those cities the number of whose negro inhabitants had grown rapidly during the decade, and excludes those which, while in 1880 in the same class, had since grown slowly or not at all. For example, in 1880 Chattanooga had 5,082 negro inhabitants and Alexandria 5,380. In 1890 Chattanooga had 12,563 and Alexandria 5,113. Chattanooga figures in his tables; Alexandria does not. Nine of the thirty-six cities whose population in 1880 and 1890 is included in the table above given by us are, as a result of the methods Mr. Hoffman has followed in making up his tables, excluded from them. In these nine cities the white population during the decade increased 27.74 per cent., and the negro 26.55.

There were in 1890 twenty-seven cities with more than ten thousand negro inhabitants each. Mr. Hoffman arbitrarily omits four of these, namely, Petersburg, Wilmington, N. C., Macon, and Montgomery. It so happens that the negro population of each of these cities is relatively very large. In the four taken together, both in 1880 and in 1890, the negroes were in a considerable majority. Each of them is surrounded by a "Black Belt" of rural counties. They are, therefore, the very places in which the racial tendency of the rural negroes to go to the cities should, if it exists at all, manifest itself. If the critics of his book were disposed to judge Mr. Hoffman as severely as he does the negro, the fact that such tendency did not manifest itself in those cities might be suggested as an explanation why he does not include them in his tables. In them the white population increased during the decade at the rate of 33.01 per cent., the negro at the rate of 23.42 per cent.

There are left twenty-three cities. In comparing them Mr. Hoffman makes the mistake of contrasting the entire population of the District of Columbia in 1890 with the population in 1880 of that portion of the District then included within the cities of Washington and Georgetown. The mistake is the more curious as, in the comparison he had made between 1860 and 1890, he had shown that he was aware of the fact that in 1890 the city of Washington had included the entire District of Columbia. It so happens, moreover, that this mistake worked in favor of the thesis he was endeavoring to sustain, as the percentage of negroes in the rural portion of the District was in 1880 considerably larger than was the case in the two cities. Using the figures he uses, without supplying any of his omissions or correcting his mistake as to the District of Columbia, the population in 1880 and in 1890 of the twenty-three cities included by him in his tables was, according to him, as follows:

	White.	Colored.
1890	6,352,204	627,953
1880	4,525,008	451,191
Increase	1,827,196	176,762
Percentage of increase	40.38	39.18

It appears, therefore, that as a result of the arbitrary selections and omissions, and of the mistake in comparing the population of the District of Columbia, the negro rate of urban increase seems to be nearly as great as that of the whites. Still, even then it is not quite so great. How does it happen that in Mr. Hoffman's pamphlet he claims to show from these very cities by the use of these very figures an apparently greater negro than white increase? This is the result of another curious accident. It so happens that Mr. Hoffman has preferred to consider the cities in two classes instead of one, and has treated separately all the cities with twenty thousand negro population in 1890 as constituting one class, while the other class is made up of all those cities with from ten to twenty thousand negro inhabitants in 1890 which he includes at all in his comparisons. He makes it appear, by so doing, that the negroes had increased faster than the whites in each class of cities. He assumes that this means that they increased faster in all the cities taken together. So will doubtless most of his readers. Ordinarily such would be a reasonable conclusion. It is, however, not a necessary one. To take an extreme case, let us assume two villages with a population in 1880 and 1890 divided between the races as follows:

	No. 1.		No. 2.	
	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.
1890	2,000	450	3,000	40
1880	1,000	200	1,000	10
Increase	1,000	250	2,000	30
Increase, per cent.	100	125	200	300

Combine these two villages and the result would be:

	White.	Colored.
1890	5,000	490
1880	2,000	210
Increase	3,000	280
Increase, per cent.	150	133⅓

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In Mr. Hoffman's group of smaller cities the whites were in 1880 nearly nineteen times as numerous as the blacks, and in the larger cities less than nine times. Both races in the smaller cities increased more than twice as fast as in the larger, so that when Mr. Hoffman's two sets of cities are combined, it turns out that the whites really increased faster than the negroes in all his cities considered together.

We have followed Mr. Hoffman's method of comparing in 1880 and in 1890 only those cities in which the negro population was considerable. Obviously, however, even if the result of such comparison had shown, as it did not show, that the negroes in those cities had increased more rapidly than the whites, his case would not have been proved. The question is not whether in particular cities which, by the very fact of their having a large negro population, are shown to be those which for one reason or another are especially attractive to the negroes, the latter have increased more rapidly than the whites, but whether they have so increased in all the cities of the country considered as an aggregate. In Mr. Hoffman's selected cities the negroes increased, according to his figures, 39.18 per cent. The population of all the cities of the country having in 1890 twenty thousand inhabitants or upwards was in that year 48.86 per cent. greater than it was in 1880.

The negro dwellers in the cities are becoming more and more numerous; so are the white; to move from the country to the city is nowadays a human not a race tendency. Unfortunately, the mortality among urban negroes is very great. Their poverty, the prejudice against them, and the conditions under which they are as a consequence compelled to live, explain some of the difference between their death-rate and that of the whites. Mr. Hoffman to the contrary notwithstanding, we are persuaded that the average negro inhabitant of the city is compelled to live under conditions less favorable to healthful existence than does the average white resident of the same place. Yet, after all allowance is made on this score, it remains true that the negro death-rate is alarmingly high, and that it is so high is owing in a large measure to the low standard of morality still so general among the race. Unfortunately, there is as yet very little statistical evidence that the moral standard of the race is rising. Perhaps it is too soon to look for much improvement in this respect. Thirty years may seem long to individuals; they are but a moment in the history of a race. It may be that the American negro is doomed to extinction. Mr. Hoffman, however, has not convinced us that any such result is in the slightest degree probable. Predictions as to the future movements of population are of very little value even when those who make them are absolutely unbiassed, and have reached their conclusions after an impartial, careful, and complete study of all the available data.

Nathaniel Massie, a Pioneer of Ohio: A Sketch of his Life and Selections from his Correspondence. By David Meade Massie. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. 1896. Portrait and Map. 8vo, pp. 285.

A DOUBLE interest attaches to this sketch of one of the pioneer settlers of Ohio. As a man, Massie did not differ greatly from many others who passed from Virginia into the Western territory, led by interest and by a certain restlessness of character. In his case the interest was strong. He was a surveyor by profession, and found good profit in surveying and locating the grants made to the soldiers of the Revolution. He was himself an owner of land in the Ohio region, and, by purchasing at low rates the soldiers' rights, acquired so large a holding that he became embarrassed, and died deeply involved in his ventures. As a surveyor he stood high; as a pioneer settler he shared in the dangers of frontier life, and thought nothing of killing an Indian in open battle or in cold blood. His descendant dwells upon the brutal exploits of the whites against the Indian, and, under a veil of romance, seeks to excuse and justify the massacre of the weaker race attempting, according to its lights, to retain possession of the country which had so long belonged to it. In connection with his land schemes Massie founded the first town in the Virginia Military District, now known as Manchester, and engaged in frontier trade, exchanging salt for furs, and shipping salt, flour, and pork to New Orleans.

In addition to the personal interest, this collection of letters has political value. The editor seems to insist that it was as a politician that Massie's highest claim to be honored rested, and that the admission of Ohio as a State was at once a triumph of Democracy and a full vindication of the State party of which Massie was a leader. Triumph over what? There was no tyranny or oppression to triumph over, and a Territorial government under the Ordinance of 1787 bore heavily upon no interests or individuals, save upon land speculations. That ordinance provided mechanically for the development of a Territory into a State, and gave the highest possible protection against tyranny by keeping out the curse of slavery. If Massie, and those who were associated with him, are to be judged by their efforts to raise Ohio into full statehood, the reasons given for their action should be weighed, and their methods tested, by sincerity and disinterestedness. Unfortunately, the letters of Massie are few in number and fragmentary, and it is from the letters of his associate and leader, Worthington, that the motives of the State party may be learned. The journals of Worthington are still in existence, and may soon be printed. Until that record is available, Massie's statements must be accepted as the best account of the methods of his party.

In 1798, the Territory, then under the governorship of St. Clair, became entitled to a representative general assembly. A so-called legislature had existed, and not infrequently obliged the Governor to give a formal acquiescence to its acts, which he did unwillingly and under protest. These acts went so far beyond the proper sphere of the powers of this legislature that, on a reaction, most of its laws were repealed, leaving, however, the ill feeling excited by the somewhat querulous and monotonous complaints of St. Clair. The opposition to the Governor was strongest in the two counties of Ross and Adams, and from those counties came his ablest and bitterest assailants, Massie, Worthington, and Tiffin. Massie had already come into conflict with St. Clair in an attempt to remove the seat of the county court to his own town of Manchester, where he was the largest holder of land. The position of the Governor in this question was unassailable, and Massie's move had every appearance of a land speculation. Tiffin became the Speaker of the new House of Representatives, and Worthington was active as a member of the leading committees.

The desire for a wider field of action was already evident. The leaders, Massie and Worthington, went so far as to propose a petition to Congress praying that the representative of the Territory in that body might vote as well as debate—a privilege not permissible under the Ordinance, and which, if granted, would confer upon a nondescript Territory equal powers on national questions with the States. The Territorial Legislature sat from September to December, 1799, and no less than eleven of its acts were vetoed by the Governor. In something of a huff, Worthington expressed his dissatisfaction with the Government, and urged that the Territory be divided, as that would bring the Legislature to his settlement of Chillicothe.

St. Clair was not opposed to such a division, and indeed no opposition on his part could have prevailed to prevent Ohio from becoming a State in the proper time. But he had seen enough of Territorial politics to recognize that a few men held great influence, and were using that influence to further their own interests and ambitions. The proposed form of government might be democratic, but it would be an oligarchy in execution. The large landholders, disposing of land on credit, exercised an undue power over the votes of those indebted to them—an abuse against that freedom of elections intended by the Ordinance. With the memory of the Spanish intrigues in Kentucky present to his mind, St. Clair feared that there had not been developed among the settlers on the Ohio a sufficiently strong attachment to the Union. He further felt that the majority were Republicans, followers of Jeffersonian principles, to whom the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions would be very acceptable. Hence he thought the proposed division untimely and impolitic, as well as based upon private interest. Worthington went to Philadelphia, pursued by St. Clair's warnings against him as a "very designing" and not "entirely that candid man I once represented him." The Territory was divided, and at Chillicothe the Legislature met. At once began an agitation by other towns desirous of the honor, and especially the profit; an agitation promising little peace to the new province.

The opposition to the Governor was strengthened by the support of the notorious Symmes, who fancied that he had many grievances against St. Clair in connection with his land grant; and by a refusal of the Governor to accede to the formation of new counties by the Legislature. These elements commanded sufficient influence to delay, but not to defeat, the confirmation of St. Clair when again nominated to the executive. Worthington met with a defeat in the success of St. Clair, and in the removal to Cincinnati of the seat of government. But the comment of the Governor on the conduct of France was some compensation for this setback, and became a good weapon against him in the hands of those who saw in the election of Jefferson the full success of Republicanism. Petitions against St. Clair were circulated through the Territory, and again did Worthington go to Philadelphia to secure his removal under charges that now seem trivial, such as receiving small fees for marriage and ferry licenses. Certain acts of the Legislature, relating to the boundaries of the Territory and the laying out of counties, to which St. Clair had given his assent but had not originated, were subjects of complaint; but the greatest stress was laid upon the Federalism of the Governor, making him a fit subject to be burned in effigy. The

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attack was so largely one of partisan politics that it is impossible to overlook the fact that Massie, Tiffin, and Worthington were deeply interested financially in their contest for statehood. In Worthington's case, personal reasons added to his dislike of the Governor, for he had been passed over in the militia appointments and had been brought to book for some land fees wrongfully assessed. To denounce the now aged St. Clair as a tyrant, and to plead Republican fervor, answered better than any serious charges of misgovernment that could have been found. Before success was assured, the parcelling out of offices began, and in the event the three leaders took the three highest offices—rewards of "disinterested partisanship."

In this early instance of a Territory passing to a State are to be found the same influences and conflicts of interests that have become familiar in more recent times. In a mining camp as well as in an agricultural settlement, sooner or later a few active and ambitious minds will see good reasons for becoming politically independent, so far as dependence upon a majority can confer that independence. The first suggestion and the basis of the agitation will be found more frequently in private interests than in public considerations, and the admission of the State into the Union is more or less tainted with jobbery of some description, private or political. In the case of Ohio the movement may have been justified by the results, but this does not free Massie and his associates from the charge of self-interest. Their denunciations of tyranny, Federalism, and monarchy were cloaks for land speculations, and the methods fell so little short of bribery and intimidation as readily to be confused with practices that nearly a century of electoral reform has not entirely suppressed.

The proof reading of this volume was carelessly done, and errors abound. The interest of the letters, however, makes up for many shortcomings.

Travels in West Africa: Congo Français, Corisco and Cameroons. By Mary H. Kingsley. With illustrations. Macmillan Co. 1897. Pp. xvi, 743. 8vo.

"To go puddling about obscure districts in West Africa after raw fetish and fresh water fishes" is Miss Kingsley's characteristic way of stating the object of her travels. Her success can scarcely be doubted. Of "puddling" she certainly had her fill in swamps, lagoons, rivers, and forests perpetually dank with rain and mist. She has added materially to our knowledge of the religious conceptions of the natives of the West Coast by numerous facts gathered at first hand from savages still little influenced by civilization. Her natural-history collections contained several species new to science, the insects alone furnishing eight new species, "for two of which it has been necessary to establish new genera." She was a keen and interested observer, however, of other things than fetish and fishes, and records her impressions of the West Coast and its inhabitants with extraordinary vigor and faithfulness. Her views upon slavery, polygamy, the gin-trade, the best methods of treating the negro by the trader, the planter, and the missionary, are stated decidedly and fearlessly, although they often run counter to the opinions of philanthropists and the supporters of missions. It is evident from Miss Kingsley's narrative that she had in no ordinary degree the qualities essential to the successful African traveller—endurance, courage, resource, sympathy for and tact in dealing with her black companions, and, above all, freedom from worry, and humor. With this last quality, invaluable in a land where disease lurks in every breath drawn by the white, her book fairly bubbles over from preface to appendix. Miss Kingsley's style is racy and unconventional, and she does not hesitate to use frequently the curious trade English of the West Coast, or to coin a word if neither language has one expressive enough for her. Altogether the book is unique, not only because it is more like the familiar conversation of a bright woman than a set narrative, but also because of the region described, the object of the travels, and the traveller herself.

Miss Kingsley does not give a continuous account of her journeying in this, her second, visit to the West Coast, but selects the most novel or interesting incidents. Among these was a trip to the island of Fernando Po, made for the purpose of studying the fetish of the Bubis, its native inhabitants. Another was the ascent of the great Peak of the Cameroons, remarkable as a feat of endurance, but disappointing from the fact that, when the summit was reached, it was "only, alas! to find a hurricane raging and a fog in full possession, and not a ten yards' view to be had in any direction." In no part of her book are Miss Kingsley's descriptive powers shown to greater advantage than in these chapters. Two months of the summer of 1895 were devoted to a journey up the Ogowé River in the Congo Français in search of fishes. Her farthest point was a French mission station some two hundred miles from the mouth, reached by steamboat and canoe. A most pathetic picture is drawn of the loneliness of the wives of these missionaries, one of whom spoke of the relief a certain sand-bank gave her. "'A relief?' I said. 'Yes, do you not see that until it shows there is nothing but forest, forest, forest, and that still stretch of river? That bank is the only piece of clear ground I see in the year, and that only lasts a few weeks until the wet season comes, and then it goes, and there is nothing but forest, forest, forest, for another year.'" The return journey to the coast included a land march through the unexplored region between the Ogowé and a river flowing into the Gaboon. Miss Kingsley's sole companions were natives, mostly Fans, the most dreaded of all West African tribes, but "full of fire, temper, intelligence, and go," and accordingly her favorites. A part of the way was through a forest so dense that "all day long we never saw the sky once." At times the beauty of this wood from the climbing plants is beyond adequate description. "They form great veils and curtains between and over the trees, often hanging so straight and flat, in stretches of twenty to forty feet or so wide, and thirty to sixty or seventy feet high, that it seems incredible that no human hand has trained or clipped them into their perfect forms. Sometimes these curtains are decorated with large bell-shaped, bright-colored flowers, sometimes with delicate sprays of white blossoms." Occasionally she encounters a troop of gorillas, "the most horrible wild animal I have seen." One of these was in a native plantation, and, when disturbed by an inopportune sneeze, "they squattered across the open ground in the most inelegant style, dragging their long arms with the knuckles downward." But when the forest was reached they swung themselves through it "from bough to bough, in a way that convinced me that, given the necessity of getting about in tropical forests, man has made a mistake in getting his arms shortened. I have seen many wild animals in their native wilds, but never have I seen anything to equal gorillas going through bush; it is a graceful, powerful, superbly perfect hand-trapeze performance." Elephants, also, more than once crossed our traveller's path, and she describes in her characteristic way their intense aversion to the smell of the civet-cat, which greatly affects a certain shrub. "I once saw an elephant put his trunk against one of these scented bushes, have it up in a second, and fly off into the forest with an Oh, lor! burn-some-brown-paper! pocket-handkerchief-please expression all over him." More dangerous still than these or the more numerous hippos and crocodiles were the natives. In the first village to which the little party came, "it was touch-and-go for twenty of the longest minutes I have ever lived" whether they would be welcomed or be killed and eaten.

Of the scientific value of Miss Kingsley's chapters on fetish we do not profess to be competent to judge, but their interest, even to the lay reader, is great. She brings out clearly the distinction between the different spirits, and shows how the fear of misfortunes lies at the foundation of all the African's religious belief. The origin of teeth-filing, so prevalent in tropical Africa, she says, is to distinguish man from the animals. "You often hear a native of tribes that go in for filing or knocking out teeth say contemptuously of those who do not follow the custom, 'Those men have teeth all same for one with dog.'" She suggests that the terror with which twins are regarded is due to the same cause. Her estimates of the negro, scattered through the volume, but given more in detail in the valuable appendix on trade and labor, are more favorable than those of most writers. "The African is far from being the brutal fiend he is often painted—a creature that loves cruelty and blood for their own sake." Nor is he a drunkard. "I have no hesitation in saying that in the whole of West Africa, in one week, there is not one-quarter the amount of drunkenness you can see any Saturday night you choose in a couple of hours in the Vauxhall Road." The great inferiority of the African to the European, she believes, lies in the lack of the "mechanical idea," and she criticises severely the kind of instruction employed generally by missionaries. It tends, she says, "to develop his emotionalism, his sloth, and his vanity, and it has no tendency to develop those parts of his character which are in a rudimentary state and much want it; thereby throwing the whole character of the man out of gear." In other words, before he is taught to read and write, he should be taught how to work. Even with such instruction she has little expectation that the negro race will advance much beyond its present culture-level, certainly not in the line of European culture. Climate and "swampy country" are against it.

Some valuable hints are given to travellers in respect to the preservation of their health and to the treatment of fever, of which 85 per cent. of the West Coasters die or return home with their health permanently wrecked; and there are descriptive lists of the author's collection of reptiles and fishes, by Dr. A. Günther, and of the insects by W. F. Kirby, of the British Museum. The book is well illustrated, but, strange to say, has no map.

Lectures on French Literature, delivered in Melbourne. By Irma Dreyfus. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

The author of this work forestalls a very

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obvious remark on it by the prefatory admission that it does not pretend to be anything but a "conscientious compilation"; and more than this, for aught that we know, may not have been expected by a Melbourne audience. To follow great critics instead of attempting independent judgments is undoubtedly a safe method, and simplifies the toil of preparation; but, as Coleridge says, "Opinions formed from opinions—what are they but clouds sailing under clouds, which impress shadows upon shadows?" The names of Nisard, Villemain, Sainte-Beuve, Hallam, etc., appear again and again, with long quotations, very little attempt having been made to blend their views with the writer's otherwise unassisted conclusions; so that some parts of these lectures are mere pickings put together with moderate skill. With the exception of Taine, no later authority than those mentioned seems to have been laid under serious contribution.

Apart from these extracts, the book contains summaries of most of the important productions of French literature from the 'Chanson de Roland' to Molière, with commentary of the sort suitable for popular lecturing—neither broad nor deep, but in the main sympathetic, and indicative of an intention to confirm such literary opinions as possess an undisputed prescriptive title to respectability. But as the author draws attention to the soundness of her classifications, it may be asked why Commines is torn from his natural associates (Joinville, Froissart, etc., in Lecture III.) and thrust at the head of the next division, which treats of Charles d'Orléans, Villon, Budé, and Erasmus; or why, again, 'La Satire Ménippée' incongruously introduces a lecture (X.) chiefly devoted to women—Louise Labé, Mme. de la Fayette, etc.

Not many serious errors occur in the book, and yet even a Melbourne audience might justly resent being told that the 'Vision' and the 'Crede' of Piers Plowman are from the same hand (p. 20). Nor should one omit mention of the fact that in quoting Charles d'Orléans's "Le Temps a laissié son manteau," and the "Ballade des Dames du temps jadis" of Villon, the unwarrantable repetition of a verse spoils the rondeau character of the former, while the ballad appears in the text shorn of its *envoi*. If hearers require these familiar quotations, it would surely have been advisable to inform them that the epigrams in "Marotic style" of Rousseau (p. 88) are by Jean-Baptiste, not by Jean-Jacques; also, that "M. Suard, Perpetual Secretary of the French Academy," to whom indebtedness is acknowledged (p. 363) much as though he were a contemporary, joined the immortals of another sphere than ours in 1817.

The translator's part has been done with unusually scrupulous fidelity to the original, for in many passages it shows no attempt at substituting an English construction for a French one. Occasionally a bit of slang is thrown in, just to give an off-hand look to the English version; but our charity will not go the length of recognizing in "up to the nines" a tasteful rendering of Mme. de Sévigné's pretty phrase, "à coiffer tout le monde" (p. 364).

Domestic Service. By Lucy Maynard Salmon. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1897.

THE subject treated in this book is of as perennial interest as that of poverty; interest that varies from the languid curiosity of fortunate housekeepers to the active and poignant emotions of those who know not how their daily bread is to be provided, or who submit to see their substance diminished by dirt, waste, and confusion, for fear that even worse things may befall them. Let none of them suppose, however, that any relief is provided by this dissertation. Miss Salmon does not claim that "all or even any one of the perplexing questions connected with domestic service will be even partially answered by it." Her modest hope is only that the facts which she has gathered will afford a broader basis for general discussion than has been possible without them, and that by studying them some housekeepers may be enabled to decide more easily some economic questions.

For the purpose of securing a statistical basis for her essay, Miss Salmon resorted to the expedient of sending out circulars to employers and servants, asking for their opinions and experiences in various directions. About 1,000 employers and 700 servants responded (5,000 sets of blanks having been sent out), furnishing, it is hardly necessary to say, an ample variety of materials for comparative examination. We do not observe, however, that the general results arrived at from tabulating these returns differ at all from those which most employers have reached through conversations with their acquaintances. Indeed, it is far from improbable that many a woman has made the "servant problem" a subject of conversation a thousand times, and thus carries with her a wealth of wisdom as great as that attainable through the use of these statistics. They have some of the interest of gossip; but we cannot assign them that of science.

Some other figures obtained by Miss Salmon merit a little attention. According to the census of 1890, domestic servants constitute but 2.32 per cent. of the total population, and only about 4 per cent. of the population of the fifty largest cities. Nine-tenths certainly, possibly nineteen-twentieths, of the families of the country, therefore, enjoy exemption from trials with servants, although presumptively the exemption is for the most part involuntary. On the other hand, Miss Salmon calls attention to the increasing use by mistresses of devices for freeing themselves from slavery to their servants, by getting much of the traditionally domestic work done outside of the house. The hebdomadal nuisance of washing is to a considerable extent abated by the institution of laundries; and the invention of the tin can and the glass jar has opened indefinite possibilities for the supply of food either already cooked or needing little preparation for the table. Perhaps in these directions the most hopeful solutions of the trials of housekeepers are to be sought.

Miss Salmon makes some comparisons between the lot of the domestic servant and that of the teacher which are open to considerable exception. She computes that the average servant is able to earn in money about $168 a year, out of which nearly $150 can be saved. This leaves but $18 a year for clothing and other personal expenses—a sum hardly sufficient in many cases for church fees. She reasons that because the board and shelter of a servant by her employer is worth $250 a year, that sum should be taken as what the servant would have to pay if otherwise employed—a conclusion refuted by the ordinary rate of wages earned in shops and factories. The great majority of the female employees in such establishments live at home, where their share of the family expenses is a comparatively light charge. Computing the average salary of female teachers in the public schools at $545, Miss Salmon assumes that their expenses for board, washing, and lodging amount to $285 a year. But as a large proportion of these teachers live with their families, this estimate should be materially reduced. Nor should we overlook the facts that the school hours are not more than five or six a day, instead of from morning to bedtime in the case of servants, that the employment is for five days in the week instead of seven, and that the vacations and holidays occupy three months, more or less, out of the twelve.

Not the least interesting part of this book is the chapter on domestic service during the colonial period. We are apt to forget that bondage in one form and another prevailed everywhere in this country down to the beginning of this century, and even later. "During the colonial period, service of every kind was performed by transported convicts, indented white servants or 'redemptioners,' 'free-willers,' negroes, and Indians." There were bondmen even on the *Mayflower*, whose names do not appear among the signatures to the celebrated compact. While in many cases the term of service was not for life, in most other respects the condition of servants was practically that of slavery. The indentured white servants, or redemptioners, who sold themselves into service to pay for their passage, constituted a very large class. It is said that they outnumbered negro slaves in Virginia and Maryland until the latter part of the seventeenth century. Samuel Breck mentions in his 'Recollections' that in 1817, in Pennsylvania, he went on board a ship from Amsterdam and bought three Swiss servants; and numberless instances of similar purchases could be cited from early records and memoirs.

In New England it was not surprising that the colonists were induced to enslave the Indians. Emanuel Downing wrote to John Winthrop in 1645 expressing his doubt whether "yt be not synne in vs" to suffer the Indians to maintain the worship of the devil, when they might be exchanged for Moorish slaves, "if vpon a Just warre the Lord should deliver them into our hands." The true motive appears in his complaint that it was impossible to thrive without a stock of slaves, for the white servants insisted on freedom to plant for themselves. But the Indians, although extensively used, were not ideal servants, and Miss Salmon aptly quotes Lowell's comment:

> "Let any housewife of our day, who does not find the Keltic element in domestic life so refreshing as to Mr. Arnold in literature, imagine a household with one wild Pequot woman, communicated with by signs, for its maid of all work, and take courage. Those were serious times indeed, when your cook might give warning by taking your scalp, or *chignon*, as the case might be, and making off with it into the woods."

Upon the whole, when we review the prodigious improvement in the condition of the serving class that has taken place within the space of a few generations, we may well feel that the problem of domestic service, from the point of view either of mistress or of servant, has lost most of its terrors, and may be left to work itself out under the influence of mutual forbearance and good will.

The Unconscious Humorist, and Other Essays. By E. H. Lacon Watson. New York: George H. Richmond & Co., 1896.

MR. WATSON'S volume is a collection of desultory essays, fifteen in number, on life in general. This is the second time of publica-

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tion, for they have already appeared once in reviews. The author likes this form of writing, he says, because, in a volume of essays, "there is no continuity of thought, no definite plan." This, if true, would not commend essays to readers, however attractive the form might be to writers. But it is not true, and the author does not mean it. What he really means is, that he should like to write essays in a vein of pleasantry, but the mistake he makes lies in thinking that this is his forte. He begins with specimens of this style, promising us some "delicate, yet not worthless, trifling," but unfortunately he is not a master of the art. He accordingly often leaves us in doubt as to which of his remarks are serious, and which gay. He declares that Johnson was "not a great or deep thinker," that to judge soundly is a "natural instinct," and he notes the fact that a person at whose serious efforts we laugh rarely succeeds when he attempts to be entertaining. In "L'Allegro" he suggests that consistency, constancy, and conviction are out of fashion, and that no one who "aims at greatness" will pay much attention to them; in "Il Penseroso" he repudiates the theory that sadness necessarily argues indigestion, and he becomes almost serious on the subject of war. At p. 83 he observes that people are apt to plume themselves on the possession of just those qualities in which they are ludicrously deficient, leaving it for them to point out that he may be himself at times a case in point. In "Bicycle Tours—and a Moral" he demonstrates an Epicurean thesis—that what makes a happy life is the sum of its happy hours, and not the attainment, after years of suffering, of the goal of a youthful ambition, for this may, when attained, prove wholly unsatisfactory. In the "Waters of Castaly" he writes a consecutive essay in which he ceases to be an essayist, and merely expresses his ideas in a simple and direct way. In our opinion he would do better to forswear humor altogether.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Answer of the Archbishops of England to the Apostolic Letter of Pope Leo XIII. Longmans, Green & Co. 35c.
Atherton, Gertrude. Patience Sparhawk and her Times. A Novel. John Lane. $1.50
Aubrey, Frank. The Devil-Tree of El Dorado. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.50.
Benson, A. C. Lord Vyet, and Other Poems. John Lane. $1.25.
Boothby, Guy. The Fascination of the King. Rand, McNally & Co.
Bremner, C. S. Education of Girls and Women in Great Britain. London: Sonnenschein.
Browne, Irving. The House of the Heart. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.
Burdett, H. C. Burdett's Official Intelligence for 1897. London: Spottiswoode & Co.
Christian Worship. Ten Lectures Delivered in Union Theological Seminary. Scribners. $1.50.
Clark, F. T. The Mistress of the Ranch. Harpers. $1.25.
Corelli, Marie. Ziska. Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Craufurd, Rev. A. H. Christian Instincts and Modern Doubt. Whittaker. $1.50.
Ebert, Prof. H. Magnetic Fields of Force. Part I. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Eldridge, P. P., and Watts, W. B. Our Rival the Rascal. Boston: Pemberton Publishing Co.
Fea, Allan. The Flight of the King: Being a Full, True, and Particular Account of the Miraculous Escape of Charles II. John Lane. $7.50.
Foley, P. K. American Authors, 1795-1895. Boston: Printed for Subscribers.
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